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ABSTRACT

This publication contains descriptive information on a group of seven American-type schools (N-12) in Colombia and Haiti. Chapter 1 establishes the historical context in an overview of the American school abroad, especially in Latin America. Included is discussion of the types, characteristics, origins, roles, and functions of these parent-cooperative or community-sponsored schools whose major objective is to provide an American-equivalent education for dependents of U.S. civilian personnel abroad and for those Nationals desirous of such an education. Chapter 2 discusses the need for planning in such schools particularly with reference to philosophy, clientele, and cross-cultural experiences. Chapter 3 contains factual description of the seven schools which constitute the Association for Colombian-American Bi-National Schools. Included is data on enrollment, admission regulation and requirements, instructional program, student organizations, educational intentions of seniors, policy making and administration, faculty committees, legal status, recognition-accreditation status, recruitment and salaries, educational preparation and qualification of instructional staff, nationality of teaching and staff personnel, improvement of professional personnel, faculty required, and school finances. (SP 003 729 and SP 003 738 are related documents.) (JS)

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THE BINATIONAL SCHOOLS:

A Planning Base For Schools in Colombia and Haiti

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

This publication contains information and data which have resulted from a joint project which involved the University of Alabama, the Office of Overseas Schools, the Association of Colombian-American Bi-National Schools; and the Regional Superintendency Project of Colombia.

The University of Alabama

The University of Alabama has long been interested in the development and improvement of bi-national schools throughout Latin America. For several years the University has been involved in such programs in Mexico, Colombia and Venezuela. Recently, it has begun a program in Haiti.

The Coordinator of Latin American Programs in the College of Education has said ". . . in pursuit of excellence, we must provide experiences and opportunities for ourselves and for our students which will attenuate provincialism and will enhance the profession of education—all within the framework that augments our concern for local problems and conditions and enables us to contribute maximally to their diagnosis, treatment, and solution through instruction, research, service and related activities. The interdependence of the peoples of the world demands that major forces for enhancing the optimum development of people throughout the world be developed as rapidly as possible—and education is one such force." The pursuit of excellence is a continuing concern of the University of Alabama and the agreement which the University has with the bi-national schools in Colombia and Haiti is one result of that concern.

The agreement under which the University of Alabama operates, provides for a systematic program of in-service education for teachers working within the Association; consultative services to the respective schools in a wide range of areas; development of professional guides and reports; and promotion of mutually beneficial programs for students, faculty, and administrators in the bi-national schools involved. Additionally, selected student teachers from the University are assigned to the respective schools for a portion of their preparation for certification.

Office of Overseas Schools

"In order to effect a single, coordinated overseas schools assistance program, the Department of State and the Agency for International Development joined in establishing the Office of Overseas Schools (O/OS) in July 1964. Located organizationally within the administrative branch of the Department of State, the Office receives policy direction from the Overseas Schools Policy Committee, which is composed of the deputy undersecretary of state for administration; the assistant secretary of state for educational and cultural affairs; and the AID assistant administrator for administration."[1] The Director of the Office of Overseas Schools, Dr. Ernest N. Mannino, serves as the executive secretary of the Overseas Schools Policy Committee.

O/OS seeks to advise and assist American Sponsored Schools overseas in their continuing efforts to improve both their instructional program and their administrative procedures, and to develop programs of financial assistance consonant with the schools' most pressing needs. At the same time it must function within the legislative authority and the financial resources of the consolidated overseas schools assistance program.

Association of Colombian-American Bi-National Schools

The Association was founded in 1961 and included schools in the cities of Barranquilla, Bogota, Cali, Cartagena, and Medellin, Colombia. The schools in Bucaramanga, Colombia, and Port-au-Prince, Haiti, were added to the Association in 1965 and 1968 respectively.

The major purpose of the Association is to create an instrument through which unified action can be taken by the member schools in such areas as in-service, recruiting, and materials exchanges. Experience has proven that many of the same problems are faced by each of the directors in the individual schools. Conversely, successes in numerous projects have developed at various levels at all of the respective schools.

With this in mind it followed that a vital, creative Association might well be the source for further strengthening of the bi-national educational process in this geographical area of the world.

Regional Superintendency Project

The Regional Superintendency was created in July 1967, to provide administrative continuity for a group of overseas schools. The schools involved are Colegio Karl C. Parrish, Barranquilla; Colegio Jorge Washington, Cartagena, and Columbus School, Medellin. All of the schools are located in the Republic of Colombia.

The central office for the Superintendency is maintained at the Colegio Karl C. Parrish.

The regional superintendent serves as a consultant and activist in personnel recruitment, budgeting, international purchasing, and creating new educational projects. Each school and its respective school board retains its autonomy. This project is the first of its kind among the 128 American Sponsored Schools overseas.

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[1] American Association of School Administrators **The Mission Called O/OS** AASA, Washington. Page 37

The statistical data contained in this report was submitted by the individual schools. In cases where the school has not provided information on specific items the entry is left blank. The statistical charts and the correlation of the information contained thereon have been prepared by Robert Seaquist who spent five weeks of September and October, 1967, in Colombia visiting the schools talking with the principals, teachers and other interested people. The information collected was placed into charts and tables and returned to the schools for their correction and approval. The final, corrected data appears in this publication.

CHAPTER I

Overview: The American School Abroad

It is difficult to find an adequate term to describe the American-type overseas schools which provide educational opportunities for children from many countries. A number of terms have been used: binational, multinational, international, and multi-cultural. All or any one of these terms may be characteristic of the student composition of the schools, but no single term can accurately describe all of the schools. This fact has created much misunderstanding and the formation of many misconceptions. This single classification for these schools has had one outstandingly negative result: generalizing about "American Schools" outside of the United States as if they were more similar than dissimilar. Of several hundred so-called American Schools, many are of direct interest to the educational community; however, most are not of any particular interest outside their own spheres of influence. This report includes a group of schools, in which the authors believe the educational community should not only be interested, but also should be committed to their further development and improvement.

TYPES OF SCHOOLS

Mission Schools

These are the oldest type of overseas schools, and were designed to serve either the local children in the overseas area, dependents of missionaries, or both. Mission schools represent many denominations and can be found all over the world. One important feature of mission schools is their boarding facilities and in some overseas areas they serve as the only available boarding school.

Proprietary Schools

These are the second oldest group of overseas schools and are usually profit-making institutions owned and operated by an individual or a small group of individuals. Although there are still a number of these schools in Europe, very few are found in other parts of the world.

Company Schools

Company schools were begun by business or industrial concerns operating in areas where educational facilities were inadequate or non-existent. They were deemed necessary in order to attract and retain qualified personnel from the United States. Although they were founded to serve only the dependents of company personnel, many of them have become binational through the enrollment of children of company personnel recruited from the local population.

International Schools

These schools are significant because they were established by and are composed of multi-national groups. They have developed curricula which have multi-national aspects and attempt to meet the multi-cultural needs of their student bodies. They are located mainly in Europe. Examples include:

. . . the International School of Geneva—1000 students from 50 countries

. . . the International School of the Hague—500 students from 40 countries

. . . the United Nations School in New York—300 students from 50 countries.

U. S. Department of Defense Overseas Dependent Schools

The largest overseas school system is the "military dependents" system operated by the United States Department of Defense. There is a branch of the system operated by each of the arms of the military and the schools are located in 25 countries throughout the world; but since they serve only the dependents of overseas-based U. S. military personnel, all of the students are American. Total enrollments are about 160,000 students in 300 schools with a professional staff of over 7,000.

Community Sponsored Schools

In addition to these types of overseas schools, there is another catagory with which this discussion is mainly concerned. These are the schools which most often were founded by Americans and other parents overseas to provide educational facilities for their children when local facilities were absent or inadequate. This type of school has been termed by the International School Service as a parent-cooperative or community-sponsored overseas school. Since Americans often comprise the largest group of citizens living and working outside their native land, these schools are frequently American-sponsored and have American-type programs.

Most of these schools are relatively new, established in the last 15 to 20 years, and approximately 20 percent have been founded since 1960. Another 20 percent however, were founded before 1940.

Pattern of Development

In general, the schools have a similar pattern of development. In the face of absence or inadequacy of U. S.-type education for their children, parents have undertaken to provide the necessary facilities. Basically, the motivation for this undertaking stemmed from one or all of the following reasons: (1) parents' desire for their children eventually to enter U. S. colleges and universities, (2) their wish to avoid sending their children to boarding schools, or (3) the desire for an American-type education by parents irrespective of their nationality.*

Most of these schools had every modest beginnings, often one or two teachers holding classes in a private home. As the community and the size of the group of children increased, a semi-permanent plant would be found, and volunteer teachers, often from the number of United States wives overseas, would be recruited as faculty. Generally, the school was managed by a school board composed of parents and elected by the parent group. At a later stage, when the size and complexity of the school exceeded the knowledge and experience of the local patrons, a professional administrator would be employed and a general institutionalization of the facility would take place.

Most of these parent-cooperative schools were established by American parents; but as the schools grew and the program and facilities improved, many of the local citizens of the area recognized the desirability of an American education for their children, particularly as an advantage to entering U. S. colleges and universities. With the admission of children of National* citizens, both host country and third country Nationals, and their inclusion on the governing boards of the schools, the foundations for the present parent-cooperative, multi-national overseas schools were complete.

Common Characteristics

The growth and modification of these schools have continued; but some of the original patterns of organization and function remain and are characteristic of most of these overseas schools.

1. Non-profit, non-sectarian institutions.
2. Urbanly located, in the capitals and large cities.
3. System of local control and management through two main types of governance:
   (a) self-perpetuating associations composed of local residents, such as a board of trustees or foundation
   (b) school boards composed of parents elected by the local patrons of the school.
4. Boards of governance composed of both United States and National citizens.

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*For example, the American School (Colegio Americano de Quito) of Quito, Ecuador was founded by Dr. Galo Plaza Lasso, former President of Ecuador and presently Secretary General of the Organization of American States. Dr. Plaza is also the current president of the Board of Directors of Colegio Americano de Quito.

*The term "National" is used throughout this publication to designate a citizen of the country in which the school is physically located.

5. Binational or multi-national pupil population, with the student body composed of Americans, host country Nationals and third country Nationals.
6. Financed mainly by tuition and fees with additional support from:
    - a.) business and industrial concerns
    - b.) foundations
    - c.) government agencies, grants-in-aid
    - d.) local private and government groups
    - e.) church and individual donations.
7. Increasing costs of operating a school have necessitated that tuition rates be at such a level that they make nearly impossible the attendance of children from middle or lower socio-economic groups unless tuition grants are available. In most of the schools, however the student body is composed of children coming mainly from the upper socio-economic classes.
8. Tuition scholarships are offered by most schools to attempt to balance the student composition. In many cases, grants-in-aid from the United States Department of State are available for this purpose; in some cases, local or national law requires that private schools provide such tuition aid.
9. Curricula of the schools are American and often minimum attention is given to the language, social studies and culture of the host country. American methods of instruction are usually followed. Many schools offer the national curriculum in addition to the American curriculum.
10. Most of the teachers are American or American-trained, with many faculty members employed locally from among wives of American expatriates. Many National personnel are also employed.

The publication, **The Mission Called O/OS,** published by the American Association of School Administrators, describes several problems which are also characteristic of the American-type overseas schools.

1. The stability and continuity of the programs of the schools are weakened by the rapid turnover of personnel and rapid change in the student body.
2. The distance from the United States and importation problems often make it difficult to obtain materials from the United States. Acquisition of materials is time-consuming and quite costly. The distance also makes it difficult to keep up with recent educational developments.
3. The lack of sufficient funds, distance from home, unsatisfactory living conditions, retard and limit recruitment and

retention of staff from the United States. These factors often make it necessary to hire local personnel regardless of qualifications.

4. The small enrollments make offering a comprehensive curriculum costly and impractical.
5. The relative isolation of the schools from each other makes the use of supervisors and specialists nearly impossible and necessitates either consolidation or cooperative action.

Some of these problems are on the way to being solved through the cooperative efforts of the schools overseas and United States school systems and colleges and universities.

Roles and Functions of American-type Schools Overseas

The American-type schools overseas can be described as having the major objective of providing an American-equivalent education for dependents of U. S. civilian personnel abroad and for those Nationals desirous of such an education. Additional roles can be attributed to these schools on the basis of their student body composition and their existence in an overseas community. The success of the operation of the school, however, will determine the extent to which the following functions can serve as assets rather than liabilities:

1. The American-type overseas school serves as a demonstration of American education. The school will be expected to exemplify the valuable qualities and merits of a democratic educational system which have been so widely publicized by the United States.
2. As a result of its origin and management, the American-type school overseas serves as a living example of American community democracy.
3. The successful operation of the American-type overseas school affects the recruitment programs for personnel to serve in overseas positions for:
   a.) U. S. government agencies
   b.) international agencies
   c.) business and industrial concerns
   d.) cultural, religious and research organizations.

   Obviously, many Americans would be reluctant to accept an overseas position if there were not adequate educational facilities for their children.

The American-type overseas school has the potential to promote international understanding in a variety of ways. At the present time some attempts are being made to utilize this potential; but since the need for multi-cultural education in the United States has only recently been recognized as critical, the use of the overseas school for investigating this important curriculum modification is just beginning.[1] The American-type overseas school has the potential to:

. . . make classmates and close friends out of future international leaders.

. . . serve as an important agency for local community activity and improvement.

. . . promote programs designed to facilitate the achievement of international objectives and serve as a laboratory for multi-cultural curriculum development.

. . . provide the United States with a large corps of American youth who have knowledge of the languages and cultures of their homes abroad, and who thus represent a youth group with the potential for international services and leadership.

. . . provide the U. S. culture with teachers who have had peacetime overseas teaching experience and multi-cultural orientation.

. . . serve as an ideal overseas assignment center for teachers in American school systems who would benefit from international experience and who would greatly enrich their schools upon their return.

. . . serve as a training ground for student teachers of American colleges and universities to provide multi-cultural experiences for prospective teachers.

Under the sponsorship of the Office of Overseas Schools in Washington, D. C., these functions are currently being investigated and tested in projects conducted by such U. S. universities as the University of Alabama and Michigan State University. Projects are also being sponsored and assisted by the Southeastern Educational Laboratory in Atlanta, Georgia.

Several School-to-School projects are also in effect throughout the world. These projects create a "pairing" of a selected overseas school and a school district in the United States which has expressed an interest in such an international exchange. Administrative, faculty, student, and material exchanges have been developed within the framework of such projects.

These projects are sponsored initially by the Office of Overseas Schools with additional funds hopefully to be generated by the respective systems.

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[1] See time table for Bachillerato Course in the Appendix.

Among the schools dealt with in depth in this report, the following School-to-School projects are underway:

Colegio Karl C. Parrish, Barranquilla—Huntsville, Alabama
Colegio Nueva Granada, Bogota—Newton, Massachusetts
Colegio Bolivar, Cali—Canton, Ohio
Columbus School, Medellin—Clark County (Las Vegas), Nevada

The Overseas Schools in Latin America

The American-type schools in Latin America have many of the same characteristics and a like pattern of development to similar schools in other parts of the world, except for the significant difference of their origin. In the parts of Latin American that are north of the equator the National citizens have played an important role in founding the schools. Many of the Latin American parents had been educated in the United States and desired an American-type education for their children. From the beginning they have worked together with American parents in the community to establish and manage an American-type school. In Bucaramanga, Colombia and Port-an-Prince, Haiti, for example, all of the parents who organized to found the school were National citizens.

Members of the Association of Binational Schools of Colombia

The Association schools are located in the areas of greatest concentration of population in Colombia. A recent addition to the organization is the Union School in Haiti. Table 1 is a directory of the schools giving the names and addresses that were correct in the summer of 1968.

TABLE 1

MEMBERS OF THE ASSOCIATION OF BINATIONAL SCHOOLS OF COLOMBIA*

School	
1. The Karl C. Parrish School Calle 77B No. 57-141 Apartado Aereo 950 Barranquilla State of Atlantico	Mr. Burton Fox, Superintendent Mr. Johnson Hagood, Board President
2. Colegio Nueva Granada Carrera 2-E No. 70-10 Apartado Aereo 11339 Bogota State of Cundinamarca	Mr. Joseph Dennehy, Superintendent Mr. Donald Landry, Board President

3.	Colegio Panamericano Carrera 39 No. 44-100 Apartado Aereo 522 Bucaramanga State of Santander	Mr. Loren Thompson, Superintendent Mr. Guy Bartholomew, Board President
4.	Colegio Bolivar Av. 10 de Mayo Pance Apartado Aereo 4875 Cali State of Valle de Cauca	Mr. Dale Swall, Superintendent Mrs. Adrienne Gutierrez, Board President
5.	Colegio Jorge Washington Carrera 1, Bocagrande Apartado Aereo No. 133 Cartagena State of Bolivar	Mr. Kenneth Crowl, Superintendent Mr. James Harris, Board President
6.	The Columbus School Carrera 73 No. 76B-43 Apartado Aereo 5225 Medellin State of Antioquia	Mr. Dwight Overholzer, Superintendent Dr. Emilio Bojanini, Board President
7.	Union School Truman Blvd. Box 1175 Port-au-Prince Haiti	Miss Nancy Gilmer, Director Mr. Robert Turnbull, Board President

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*The Union School became a member of the Association recently; an appropriate change in the name of the Association is presently under consideration.

Origin of the Schools

Most binational schools in the Association were originated by groups of United States citizens who recognized the necessity for preparing their children to enter schools or colleges in the United States. Although the schools generally were founded for North Americans, their doors were later opened to all nationalities and at present there are more Nationals than United States children in attendance. In Table 2 the schools are listed by the years in which they were founded.

TABLE 2

DATES SCHOOLS WERE FOUNDED

School	Date
Barranquilla	1938
Bogota	1938
Bucaramanga	1963
Cali	1948
Cartagena	1952
Medellin	1946
Port-Au-Prince	1919

Student Body Composition

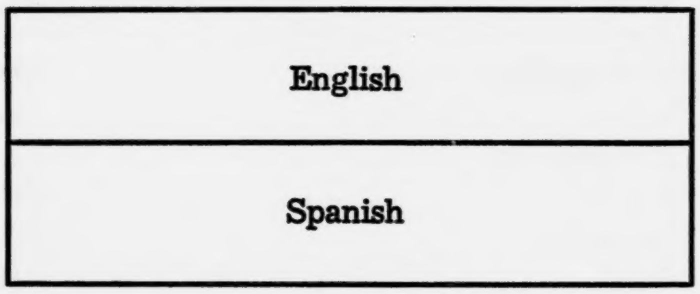
The participation of National citizens in the founding of an American-type school has caused these schools in Latin America to exhibit characteristics somewhat different from American schools in other parts of the world. The most obvious difference is in the composition of the student body which in other parts of the world are predominately American and consist of only a small percentage of students that are host and third country Nationals. The schools in Latin America, however, often have student bodies which are composed largely of dependents of National citizens. In Colombia the American-type school in Bogota is the only one out of six schools to have more than one half American students. All the other schools have less than 25 percent American students.

The composition of the student body has had a definite effect on the structure of the language aspect of the curricula offered in the schools. In the schools in the other parts of the world, the American curriculum is offered and taught in English with special classes for non-English speakers in order to bring them to the necessary language skill so that their instruction can be conducted in English. Some attention is then given to the language, customs and social studies of the host country, but for the most part these are taught in the traditional manner. This is a natural approach when nearly all of the students are native English speakers.

Curriculum Organization

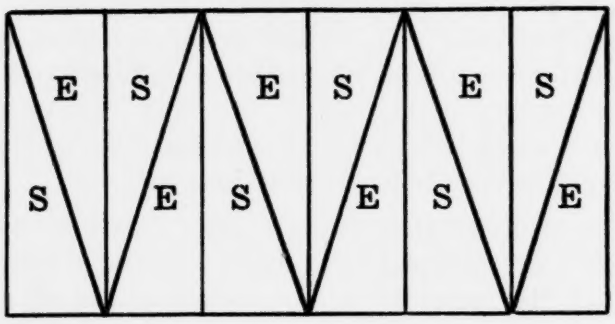
In the schools in Latin America, however, because of the larger proportion of National students, several patterns of curriculum organization with respect to language are possible. These patterns can be demonstrated by depicting the amount of time alloted to each of the languages taught in the school. For clarity, Spanish and English are used as examples.

Model I*



Model 1: Instruction can be equally divided between English and Spanish. Usually, a school operating with this structure will have one session either morning or afternoon, offered in one language and the other session offered in the second. Sometimes, instruction given in one language is duplicated in the other. In other cases the instruction offered in one language is not duplicated but is reinforced or extended in the second language.

Model II



Model II: Instruction can be provided in both languages, giving each one approximately the same amount of time, but any timeblock may contain the two languages used in an integrated or blended manner. Team-teaching is often used in this kind of program.

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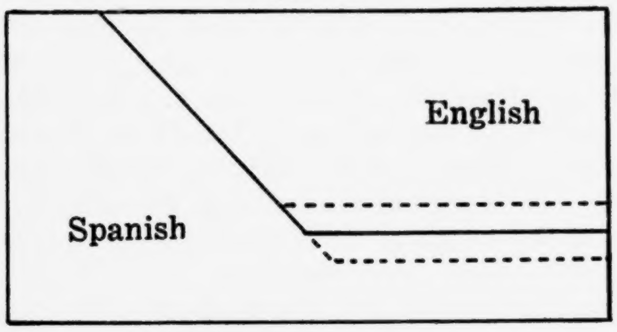
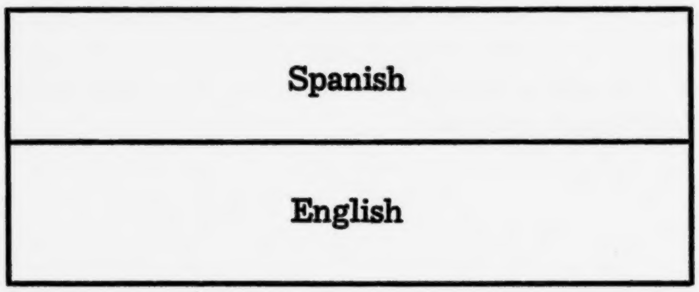
*These models first appeared in **Razon de Ser of the Bilingual School: a Handbook for Teachers.** This is a publication prepared by the Educational Materials Development Center of the Southeastern Education Laboratory in Atlanta, Georgia.

Model III



Model III: Instruction can begin totally in Spanish and as the student gains mastery of English, less and less time is devoted to instruction in Spanish until all instruction is offered in English. In the final years, Spanish may be studied as another subject in the curriculum. This structure is designed to make the Spanish speaker completely fluent in English.

Model IV



Model IV: Instruction can be offered in Spanish while English is also offered, either as another subject or as the language in which some of the subjects are taught.

What often occurs in the programs of the American-type schools in Latin America is that elementary programs are constructed after the fashion of Model III and secondary programs are taught in English with the local language offered as an additional subject in the curriculum. The stipulation is then made that all non-English speakers enter the school at the beginning of the program so that by the time they reach the secondary school level they are prepared to receive all instruction in the English language. This practice is consistent with many recent studies in language learning which indicate that a child should begin school with instruction in his native language to avoid the difficulties which occur when a child is forced to learn through a language he does not command. Other combinations of patterns are also found.

Another effect of Latin American participation in the management of the schools is the increasing number of schools which are offering both the American curriculum and the National curriculum. All of the schools in Colombia that have a complete secondary program offer both the American curriculum and the Colombian Bachillerto. Of the large number of Latin American students, many are not able to attend college or university in the United States; however by offering the National curriculum the schools are more effectively meeting the needs of their students by preparing them for further education in their own country.

The active participation of Latin Americans in the management of the overseas schools has helped many of the schools to realize some of the more ideal goals of international cooperation and understanding. A successful school which is conducted and controlled jointly by the members of the local as well as the American community would create more of an atmosphere of mutual cooperation and respect than one which is managed by and serves one nationality alone. To this end the schools in Latin America are making significant progress.

Hopefully, the eventual objective of all American-type schools overseas should be to serve equally the American and local communities offering a truly integrated curriculum which takes full advantage of the opportunities offered by the representative cultures and educational systems.

CHAPTER II

THE NEED FOR PLANNING

Introduction

American-type schools overseas have a unique opportunity to provide a good education—enhanced by cross cultural experiences—for the boys and girls who attend them. In most cases, however, this opportunity must be viewed more as a potential than as an accomplishment. With a few exceptions, a school's potential to provide such an education is limited by a number of voids in the planning base, some of which are:

1. The lack of information about the relative status of a school
2. The lack of a clear direction concerning what a school seeks to accomplish, and
3. The lack of a designed strategy which gives direction of how to get from where a school is to where it believes it should be. (This is, perhaps, the most important item.)

These factors may appear to be rather simple and school board members and school superintendents (or directors) tend to oversimplify solutions to them. A standard practice on the part of some seems to be the rather hopeless attitude that any problem of significance would disappear if more financial assistance was forthcoming; however this cannot be supported by the facts. For example, one school may expend four times as much as another and by many professional standards not be a better school. It is true in the United States that the most reliable index of the quality of a school's program is the per pupil expenditure per year; however the schools identified by the Institute for the Development of Educational Activities (IDEA) of the Charles F. Kettering Foundation as among the most innovative in the United States expend an average of approximately $525 per pupil. Without question, some schools that expend two or three times as much as the IDEA schools are not providing a program that is as good. Although many American schools overseas spend as much as $525 per pupil, it is obvious that some are good schools and some are not.

In any case, American-type schools in Latin America have unique problems as well as opportunities and some of these have been identified in the first chapter. Furthermore, it is highly unlikely that any school will become a better school by accident. When it is recognized that improvement will occur only as a result of someone or some group doing something to cause certain results, planning has begun to take place.

Planning for the improvement of the American-type school is a unique task. This fact can best be described by a thumbnail sketch of certain factors concerning schools in the United States. First, they receive a great deal of planning assistance from the federal government, from state departments of education, from each other, from colleges and universities, and from regional accrediting associations. Most particularly, even though they operate with a great deal of local autonomy, they are generally required to operate within the limits of minimum standards established by the state. This is true for private as well as public schools. Succinctly, the legislature of a state has plenary power to enact laws regarding its schools as long as such legislation does not conflict with provisions of the state or the Federal Constitution.

Most people view education as quite literally being a function of the state in which local school boards operate with the responsibility and the authority which is delegated to them by the state. Schools, thereby, in the United States receive a great deal of planning assistance from a number of groups and operate within limits that are established by governments or groups other than the school board and the people who elect or appoint them.

For all practical purposes, American schools in Latin America are not responsible to any legally constituted public group in areas that most influence quality education. The government of the country in which the school operates (host country) may require compliance with National laws concerning a charter to operate, taxes, textbooks and programs of study for the National program (if such is offered). Social benefits and similar items are provided for employees, but the governments rarely, if ever, make any demands or requirements to improve the quality of the program through causing a school to plan for itself.

This is probably appropriate because, among other reasons, National governments in host countries are primarily interested in National education rather than binational education, and their own problems are paramount.

Thus, in most cases, school boards and school directors in American schools in Latin America have almost unlimited freedom to plan and develop good programs, or conversely, they may proceed licentiously to create such chaos that the resulting organizational and administrative unrest pervades the learning environment and seriously jeopardizes the children's development and learning. The major point is that in most cases the decisions that the controlling groups of these schools make are much more exclusively their own than they would be if they were functioning as boards or superintendents of public or private schools in the United States.

American school superintendents and board members in Latin America thus have to do not only a more difficult job of planning but have less formal or professional control, guidance and regulation to assist them.

Educational planning occurs in these schools whether by design or default. Each time a board of directors makes a decision or establishes a policy, it is functioning not only in decision-making but also in planning.

Types of Planning

Planning should be based on a systems approach in which planning is undertaken with adequate facts and data within a framework in which the board and superintendent view quantitative data as it relates to the totality of the school's philosophy, objectives and programs. In order to accomplish this level of planning, a highly competent and well-trained school administrator is needed.

A second level of planning, which is most common, is planning without adequate facts. In such cases, decisions are: made on best judgement, sympathetic introspection, or noninferential knowledge (such as intuition). Some small schools have operated in this manner without any noticeable upheavel; however such parapsychological approaches to planning are obviously dangerous. Even though some schools function on this basis, they can never accomplish their full potential.

A third type of planning is one in which data may be available but the school has no institutionalized goals. (This is especially important for the American-type school in Latin America because personnel—board members, directors and faculty—turnover is extraordinarily high). This third type of planning could be labeled simply as planning without purpose. Few schools seem to have a clear understanding of what they seek to accomplish. This is not to imply that some individuals do not have very clear notions about what they think the school should be doing, but their action may be based on decision by individual whim rather than on decision consistent with goals that have been institutionalized and therefore represent an identifiable clientele.

Strategy Building

Explicit in the process of educational planning is strategy building. This element requires first of all that a school establish for itself some targets. As previously mentioned, a systems analysis approach should be used. Simply, this indicates that a school should decide on goals and procedures which will provide the board criteria and a system against which to measure its subsequent actions to determine how all of its agreed upon targets are being affected. The primary point in strategy building is, therefore, establishing targets.

A second point in strategy building involves establishing objectives and setting priorities. Whether the problem is building a new home, stocking a connoisseur's wine cellar, or making decisions about schools, the people responsible must make some choices. It is rare that anyone can have all the spaces and gadgetry he might want in a home or have a wine cellar which includes a stock from all of the finest wineries. It is true however, that by choosing to buy one stock of wine, one chooses by design or by the choice not to buy another stock.

In education, by choosing to put resources into one area, one has also made the decision **not** to put them into another area. This part of strategy building, then, is that school funtionaries make many critical decisions either within a planned system or by chance. Deliberately making choices is not an easy task—the alternative is to leave the future of the school to chance.

If choices are to be made, there are some areas and directions which are obvious. There is not, however, a prescription for a school. The nature of the type of planning that is to be followed, the strategy building that is to be designed, and the choices that are to be made are not only the prerogative but the responsibility of the board of directors of an American-type school in Latin America.

✓ The purpose of this chapter is to establish the fact that planning is needed. The following areas, which are discussed briefly, appear to be a few vital examples of the need for planning.

Philosophy

Some philosophers contend that it is impracticable to attempt to develop a "philosophy for a school." This is based on the assumption that only individuals may have philosophies and that philosophy cannot be institutionalized. The best specific guide for developing a "Philosophy" for a school is probably found in the publication **Evaluative Criteria.** By whatever "name" the basis for thinking may be called a school makes many important decisions from some philosophical premise. The main point may well be the extent to which the stated philosophy represents the clientele being served by the school. For example, if a school operates from a premise that its mission is to prepare boys and girls in the best tradition of private schools in the United States the people operating from such a position may be serious or they may be engaged in wishful thinking. Assuming that such a position is valid, it could also be assumed that agreement exists on several other points which must be parallel to the operation of the model, i.e., the best of U.S. private schools. These would include: (1) similar admission policies, (2) equal facilities, (3) agreement to generate income which would equal per pupil expenditures so that salaries, special services and class size would be similar. Too often in education, groups of schools are unrealistic about statements of philosophy which are intended to provide a premise from which other action can be taken. The net result of a lack of an identifiable representative philosophy for a school, or of the absence of one, is ill-founded strategy building and decision making.

Every school should have a written statement of philosophy—a fundamental reason for its policies and actions. When the school exists by reason of the combined efforts of several people or groups, the philosophy of the school should represent the combined thinking of the same people. In fact, the preparation of a philosophy through the cooperative efforts of those involved with the school is a unique experience in the evolving of school purposes.

The statements of philosophy which were seen in Colombia were practically identical. This also was true of the written "Educational Objectives."

In some cases the stated objectives of the school and the program of the school seemed to have little, if any, relationship. For example, the statement "To make our students fully qualified to enter both Colombian and American universities," can have little significance for a school that has no high school program.

On the other hand, most of the objectives are pertinent, meaningful, and give direction to the schools' operations. The writer attended an "amateur hour" variety show put on by one of the binational schools that included songs, dances, instrumental music, readings, and declamations. At least five different languages were used and at least that many nationalities were represented. The quality was excellent; the audience was large and responsive; the obvious feelings of international good will were impressive.

For this school the idealistic statements of its philosophy and its objectives were apparently being translated into reality. The quality of the presentations indicated a seriousness of purpose and dedication on the part of the staff. It is the writer's judgment that this is not unusual in the binational schools.

It would be meaningful for the schools' clientele and staffs if their statements of philosophy and objectives were derived from their own thought. Though personnel changes are constant, the statements need not be rewritten continually; however, the staff and the clientele should be aware of the objectives of the school and the school's program should be expected to be in the direction of their achievement.

Assuming the professional competence of the staff two conditions seem vital for each school. They are:

1. The objectives should be seriously believed in by the clientele and staff.

2. There should be financial support sufficient to make the achievement of the objectives possible, or a plan to generate such support.

One objective apparently important to all binational schools is that of developing understanding and good will between the people of the U.S. and those of the host country. This also is one of the objectives of the U.S. State Department and it gives ample justification for the financial support of the binational schools by the U.S. government.

Although the U.S. support has been important to many of the binational schools, overall it has not been generous. In the light of what is possible for the binational schools to accomplish, U.S. government support of the schools should be multiplied several times. This is probably the most important single need of the schools in order to achieve their objectives, and private sources can hardly be expected to provide all funds that are required.

Clientele

There are many ramifications to the choice of the characteristics of the clientele of a school. Perhaps two uncontroversial statements can be made: (1) any school has a responsibility to meet the educational needs of the youth it serves and (2) American-type schools in Latin America are highly vulnerable to constituent intervention.

Perhaps the crux of the choice that must be made in this area is the true nature of the school. Is it to be quasi-public or truly private? To my knowledge, most American-type schools in Latin America are more similar to U.S. public schools than they are to U.S. private schools. There is good evidence, however, that many of the board members view the schools—or would like to view them—as private schools. Obviously, the major problem in making such a determination is not easy or simple, because once it is made the nature of the school is determined. For example, if a school's admission policies are designed on the quasi-public premise of accepting any educable child who is English-speaking for placement in the school program contingent primarily on availability of space, a choice has been made that affects the nature of the program, the characteristics and qualifications of staff and faculty and practically every other aspect of what the school will be.

Cross-Cultural Experiences

Because the schools exist within a culture different from their own, the students are afforded unusual opportunities for study: (1) they can view their own culture from a perspective which is impossible within the United States: (2) they can study a different culture from a priviledged and intimate position.

The social studies offer unique opportunities for community study that can involve the students in significant intercultural experiences. Ideally, community studies should be handled through team-teaching techniques that involve National and North American teachers working together. At least two benefits can be gained from such an approach: (1) The language problem will not be a barrier to doing field studies, as the National teacher can do the work that must be done in the native language; (2) Each teacher—National and North American—can bring in the knowledge of his own cultural background for comparison and study.

The American students and teachers should not be permitted to perceive their school as an American island in a foreign sea. Through courageous and imaginative educational innovations all the nationalities involved in the school should learn to understand each other better.

Hopefully, these foregoing exchanges may serve to stimulate the thinking of superintendents and board members who are charged with developing the binational schools. Planning for good schools is a complex task but one which is amply rewarding.

CHAPTER III

FACTUAL DESCRIPTION OF SCHOOLS

Student Body Profiles

The bi-national school student population is uniquely diverse. Students of the schools may be citizens of the host country, the United States, or of a third, usually European, nation. The native language of the student may be English, Spanish, Portuguese, French, or any of the other national languages. The students may be citizens of the host country, may be children of expatriates having no other real home, or may be members of a family from elsewhere, temporarily residing in the country. The national origin is only one aspect of the great variety found among bi-national students.

It will become increasingly necessary to find better means of describing individual differences among the schools' students, however. Improvements in the testing techniques and instruments used for determining differences in intelligence, aptitudes, interests, and so on, are presently being sought. The increasing availability of counseling and guidance services in the schools will assist in making more accurate information available. Because discovering the true nature of the students to be served by the school is an important first step in making practical and effective educational plans, it is hoped that this need will be recognized and met.

In one essential dimension, however, the students are homogenous. The relative expense of the bi-national schools as compared to local education costs has meant that the student usually comes from a home in the higher income brackets. This has been the unintentional by-product of obtaining the school operating costs from tuition fees. Where possible, either through local or United States government assistance, scholarships have been awarded but the number has been too small to make student populations truly representative of the local population.

Enrollment Data

An analysis of Table 3 indicates that the schools of the association range in size from Bogota with over 1100 students to Port-au-Prince with less than 300. Of the seven schools, the three smallest are of nearly the same size—about 200; three others at about 600 pupils are nearly equal in size; and then there is Bogota which is nearly double the size of the next largest school.

The largest proportion of National students in a student body is in Bucaramanga which has 85 percent of the student body composed of Nationals. The smallest percentage of Nationals in a school is in

Port-au-Prince where they compose only 33 percent of the student body. Bogota is unique in that it controls the balance of its student body maintaining about 58 percent United States students and about 41 percent National with the remainder occupied by other nationalities.

TABLE 3
ENROLLMENT DATA, 1966-67

Schools	Grades	United States	National	Other
Barranguilia				
(590 Total)	N	8	31	2
	K	9	53	2
	1	8	53	2
	2	8	50	2
	3	7	38	5
	4	12	43	2
	5	7	42	3
	6	9	29	8
	7	8	34	3
	8	12	21	1
	9	5	15	1
	10	8	14	3
	11	3	16	1
	12	1	8	1
Total		105	447	38
Percent		18	76	6
Bogota				
(1140 Total)				
	N	0	0	0
	K	41	37	4
	1	56	39	4
	2	53	36	5
	3	61	42	4
	4	68	40	3
	5	64	34	2
	6	52	36	2
	7	57	49	4
	8	46	27	2
	9	45	35	4
	10	47	25	3
	11	27	33	2
	12	16	27	8
Total		633	460	47
Percent		56	40	4

TABLE 3—Continued

Schools	Grades	United States	National	Other
Bucaramanga (201 Total)				
	N	2	19	
	K	3	15	2
	1	2	20	1
	2	3	20	0
	3	2	20	1
	4	1	21	2
	5	2	13	0
	6	3	15	2
	7	5	18	0
	8	0	9	0
	9			
	10			
	11			
	12			
Total		23	170	8
Percent		11	85	4
Cali (635 Total)				
		No breakdown by grades		
	N			
	K		82	
	1		79	
	2		67	
	3		65	
	4		57	
	5		49	
	6		43	
	7		35	
	8		37	
	9		18	
	10		21	
	11		11	
	12		14	
Total		149	415	71
Percent		24	65	11

Table 3—Continued

Schools	Grades	United States	National	Other
Cartagena (255 Total)				
	N	3	12	----
	K	5	30	2
	1	8	14	3
	2	3	24	3
	3	6	30	1
	4	1	23	----
	5	3	15	2
	6	8	12	1
	7	3	13	1
	8	4	11	
	9	2	12	
	10			
	11			
	12			
Total		46	196	13
Percent		18	77	5
Medellin (555 Total)				
	N			
	K	6	48	6
	1	10	51	10
	2	8	47	12
	3	5	42	14
	4	5	45	9
	5	4	40	2
	6	8	30	8
	7	5	20	6
	8	4	26	4
	9	3	13	6
	10	3	9	8
	11	5	13	4
	12	0	11	5
Total		66	395	94
Percent		12	71	17

Schools	Grades	United States	National	Other
Port-au-Prince (191 Total)				
	N			
	K	6	7	4
	1	11	6	3
	2	9	3	3
	3	10	3	4
	4	11	3	3
	5	6	6	5
	6	9	9	2
	7	11	4	1
	8	7	5	3
	9	5	6	2
	10	7	5	1
	11	1	1	2
	12	1	6	
Total		94	64	33
Percent		49	33	17

Bogota and Bucaramanga have the smallest percentages of other nationalities. The reason for this is that the city of Bogota has many other national schools so that most of the major nationalities are served by schools of their own. Bucaramanga has few "other" nationalities. Medellin has the largest proportionate number of other nationalities with 17 percent of the student body in this group which is larger than the number of United States students.

Two of the schools—Barranguilla and Cartagena—have nursery or pre-kindergartens. While Bucaramanga and Cartagena do not have high school programs, they expect to develop high schools as their present student bodies reaches high school age.

ADMISSION REGULATIONS AND REQUIREMENTS

A study of Table 4 reveals the entrance requirements of the binational schools. In order for a student to be admitted to any of schools at a level above that of kindergarten or first grade it is necessary for him to be able to communicate in English. This in effect, usually excludes any non-English speaking student above the age of seven or eight who might want to transfer into a binational school but who has not had the opportunity to learn to speak English in addition to his first language. Whether or not this is important in a school is largely dependent on the clientele a school intends to serve.

TABLE 4 ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

	Barranquilla	Bogota	Bucaramanga	Cali	Cargagena	Medellin	Haiti
Ability to Speak Eng.	X	X		X	X	X	X
Membership in school		X		X			X
Test score	X	X		X			X
Have Written Policy	X	No		Yes			No

THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

The aims of the school, the parents' and the students', are implemented by the school's instructional program. When this is not true one of two things usually happens: either the school changes its program or the students seek another school. Because many of the students attending the AOS are captives (there may be no other English language school in the area), it is especially important that the school program be carefully designed to adequately meet their needs.

Table 5, shown below, briefly describes the curricula offered in the American sponsored schools of Colombia. All of the schools, except Cartagena and Bucaramanga which have no high school departments, offer only college preparatory curriculum; however this program represents the desires of the vast majority of the parents. While it is true that the student bodies are a highly select group, some students are being neglected for it seems unlikely that 100 per cent of them are college bound. Thereaso n is not that the school leaders are either callous or misinformed; the reason is economic. With only a very small portion of the student body not intending to go to college, who will pay for the additional courses, classrooms, materials, and teachers that will be required?

TABLE 5 CURRICULA OFFERED

Barranquilla	**U.S. Program:** Pre school, kindergarten through high school. College preparatory. **Colombian Program:** Bachillerato
Bogota	**U.S. Program:** Kindergarten through high school. College preparatory. **Colombian Program:** Bachillerato degree work for those students who wish to enter Colombian universities.
Bucaramanga	**U.S. Program:** Nursery School, Kindergarten through eighth grade. **Colombian Program:** None

Cali	**U.S. Program:** Nursery School, Kindergarten through high school. College preparatory. **Colombian Program:** Bachillerato degree work for those students who wish to enter Colombian universities.
Cartagena	**U.S. Program:** Pre school, Kindergarten through ninth grade. **Colombian Program:** Pre-Bachillerato
Medellin	**U.S. Program:** Kindergarten through high school. College preparatory. **Colombian Program:** Bachillerato degree work for those students who wish to enter Colombian universities.
Port-au-Prince	**U.S. Program:** Kindergarten through high school. College preparatory. **Haitian Program:** None

The subject offerings in the schools are heavily weighted toward college attendance in the United States although some of the schools have Bachillerato (Colombian College preparation) courses also. Table 6 lists the subject offerings, and the numbers of students taking the various courses show that there is almost no variation of choice for the individual student.

While most of the schools offer some special courses in languages, this fundamentally important area is neglected in some schools.

TABLE 6

Subject Offerings in High Schools— Number of Students Taking Each

Courses	Barranquilla	Bogota	Bucaramanga	Cali	Cartagena	Medellin	Port-au-Prince
Total High School	160	520		136		140	100
English	160	520		136	46	140	100
Mathematics	160			136	46	140	96
Social Stud.	160	520		136	46	140	100
Science	160	400		136	46	140	96
Core Prg.	160				46		
Art	160	100			46	70	
Music				40		70	
Spanish	150	?		136	46	119	
French	130	?		70		40	100
Dutch						7	
Special Spanish	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Special English	Yes	?	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Religion	100	200		Offered outside of Schl.	33	120	
Ind. Arts			Yes				
Home Ec.							

Schedules and Time Per Day

Most of the schools have daily schedules as shown in Table 7 that adequately provide opportunities for the students to participate in the program and in the activities available. Some of the days appear to be long, but long noon recesses give opportunities for rest.

Conclusions based upon United States customs and practices regarding schedules can result in misunderstandings.

In many Latin American countries the work-day starts late, there is a siesta and then the work may continue into the evening; and many a Latin American businessman is still hard at work long after his North American counterpart has had his dinner. Other Latin Americans start their days early in the morning and work no longer than noon. The United States 8:00 to 5:00 schedule is not practiced by many other cultures; and in making judgments regarding schedules, there is often more to be considered than what seems obviously apparent. Nevertheless, students require a certain minimum number of hours in class in order to make the amount of progress necessary.

TABLE 7 TIME IN SCHOOL DAY

	Barranquilla	Bogota	Bucaramanga	Cali	Cartagena	Medellin	Port-au-Prince
Morning El. H.S.	7:50-11:30 7:50-12:00	8:40-Varies 8:40-12:10	7:30-11:30	7:45-12:30	8:00-11:40	11:30 8:20-12:10 8:20-1:00	7:30-12:30 7:30-12:30
Lunch El. H.S.	11:30-1:20 12:10-1:20	45 min. 12:10-12:50	11:30-1:30	12:30-1:05	11:40-1:25	11:30-12:10 12:10-12:30 1:00-1:40	9:40-10:00 9:40-10:00
Afternoon El. H.S.	1:20-3:45 1:20-5:15	2:15 Varies-3:15 12:50-4:15	1:30-3:45	1:05-3:30	1:25-4:00	12:10-3:20 12:50-4:15 1:40-3:20	
Total time study-Min. El. H.S.	365 min 485 min	335 min 395 min 415 min	375 min	412 min	375 min	380 min 380 min	280 min 280 min
Time Recess Inc. Lunch El. H.S.	110 min 80 min	45 min 40 min	120 min	53 min	105 min	40 min	20 min

All of the schools have at least 175 teaching days of school per year, although maintaining this number of days sometimes requires a longer school year due to the addition of local and national holidays to those traditionally celebrated in the United States.

STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

The number and kinds of student organizations can be considered to be a measure of the depth and breadth of a school program. As indicated in Table 8 the schools list a large number of diverse organizations—clubs and societies. Two of the schools have given no indication of the numbers of students involved; therefore just the fact that the organization is listed is acknowledge by an X. The numbers indicate the membership in the fall of 1967 and most of the clubs had memberships composed of U.S., National and other nationalities.

TABLE 8 STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

	Karl C. Parrish Barranquilla	Nueva Granada Bogota	Panamericano Bucaramanga	Bolivar Cali	Jorge Washington Cartagena	Columbus Medellin	Union Port-au-Prince
Art		X					
Basketball		X				10	
Boxing	12						
Bridge		X					
Choir		X		X		30	
Drama		X					
Football		X					
French		X					
Homemaking		X					
Honor				X			
Library	7						
Mathematics	19	X					
Newspaper	10			X	14	5	8
Photography		X		X			
Science		X		X			
Sewing				X			
Soccer		X					
Spanish		X					
Stamp		X					
Student Council	19			X	12	10	9
Typing				X			
Yearbook	20			X		5	

EDUCATIONAL INTENTIONS OF SENIORS

The stated plans of the seniors in several of the schools are shown in Table 9. Out of the fifty-three seniors reported only four have decided to stop their formal education.

Educational Intentions of Seniors 1967-1968	Attend 4-year College or University	Attend Junior College	Attend other post Secondary School (Bus. College or Tech. Insti.)	Will continue education but undecided on type of school	Stop formal Education upon Graduation	Undecided	Total
Barranquilla							
Boys	7		2				9
Girls	5	1	3			1	10
Bogota							
Boys			NO REPORT				
Girls							
Bucaramanga							
Boys			NO SENIOR CLASS				
Girls							
Cali							
Boys	4		1				5
Girls	3			1		1	5
Cartagena							
Boys			NO SENIOR CLASS				
Girls							
Medellin							
Boys	6			1			7
Girls	5		1		2		8
Haiti							
Boys	1	0	0		0		1
Girls	1	2	3		2		8
TOTAL	32	3	10	2	4	2	53

Policy Making and Administration

A number of agencies participate in an interest in the overseas schools. Those engaged in the regular operation of the schools are assisted by organizations and institutions with a concern for the well being and improvement of the schools. Those entrusted with daily operation of the school include the school boards, the school administrative staff, and the school faculties. Contributing agencies include the Office of Overseas Schools in Washington, the Colombian American School Association and regional superintendency, and the University of Alabama. The Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, as the accrediting agency, also has an important concern for the Colombian Schools.

School Board Membership: The school boards have a most important role to play in the direction of the school. Quite frequently the boards act as the elected corporate owners of the school, though no single pattern of school board selection is general. The boards of the Colombian-American Schools and the ownership of the schools are described as follows:

In all but one of the schools the board members are elected by the parents and in four out of the seven schools they are elected for one year while in two the board serves two-year terms. One school board serves three-year terms.

Only one school board has no regularly scheduled meetings; nevertheless it seems to meet twice as much as any of the other boards. Four out of the seven have standing committees and only three follow what is generally considered to be the better practice of appointing special committees for specific tasks and times. The schools are listed in Table 10 with the number of board members and a short description of each board's operation.

TABLE 10
ORGANIZATION OF THE BINATIONAL SCHOOL BOARDS

School	No. of Members	Description
Barranquilla	13	Appointed by trustees. One-year term. Meets regularly once a month. Special committees appointed as need arises.
Bogota	7	Elected by parents. One-year terms. No regular meetings but generally meets twice per month. Has standing committees.
Bucaramanga	15	Elected by parents. One-year terms. Regular monthly meetings. Has standing committees.
Cali	10	Elected by bondholders. One-year terms but 2 members must be re-elected. President and 2 members must be U.S. citizens. Regular monthly meetings. Committees appointed for special needs.
Cartagena	5	Elected by parents. Two-year terms. Two members must be U.S. citizens. Board members must have children in school. Committees appointed as needed. Regular monthly meetings.
Medellin	7	Elected by parents. Two-year terms. Regular monthly meetings. Has standing committees.
Port-au-Prince	7	Elected by parents. Three-year terms. Regular monthly meetings. Has standing committees.

Fundamentally the smooth operation of the school over an extended period of time depends upon the school board. The board should not be involved with day-to-day operations. It should, however, set the climate within which the school administrator functions and determine whether or not he can act as the chief administrative officer of the school. (Generally the principles that apply in industry to the relationship between a stockholders' board and a company president also apply to the relationship between a school board and the superintendent.)

Just as the size and composition of the school boards vary, so too do the legal authority and responsibility they exercise. During the 1962-63 school-year the school boards, schools' administrators, and the University of Alabama jointly wrote a Manual for School Board Members which outlined the general powers of the board and the duties it would perform. It was a generally agreed that the board would:

1. Have general administration and supervision of the school and educational interests of the section of the community served by that school.
2. Attempt to maintain an effective system of education in the schools which they direct.
3. Hold in trust, property, funds and claims of the schools.
4. Appoint a Director who will serve as the Board's executive and administrative officer and fix his salary and term of office.
5. Determine with, and on the advice of the Director, the educational policy and prescribe the rules and regulations for the conduct and management of the school.
6. Appoint, upon the written recommendation of the Director, all principals, teachers, and clerical assistants authorized by the Board.
7. Subject to the provisions of the Colombian law, dismiss teachers or other employees for immorality, misconduct in office, insubordination, incompetency, or willful neglect of duty, or when the interest of the school requires.
8. Exercise, through the Director and his professional assistants, control and supervision of the schools.
9. Arrange for transportation of pupils if this is an assumed responsibility.
10. Provide for and insure a physically healthy plant in which the children are educated.
11. Upon the written recommendations of the Director, prescribe a course of study for the schools.
12. Upon the recommendation of the Director, prescribe forms and blanks for reports required of professional assistants and other employees.

13. Cause to be prepared and distributed annually an itemized statement of all receipts and disbursements of the school including a statement of the condition, needs for improvement, and accomplishments of the school.
14. Acquire or purchase, lease, receive, hold, convey and transmit real property and construct and maintain school buildings for school purposes.
15. See that all school property is insured for its insurable value.
16. Recognize that in the event a higher body than the Board of Directors exists, that its responsibilities are delegated to it by that higher body and operate within the rules and responsibilities set forth by the delegating body.*[1]

The Board As a Policy-Making Body: The Board acts as the representative of the people in the school system which it serves. In this capacity, the Board's basic function is to see that the school is operated in accordance with the law and in a manner consistent with the welfare and aspirations of the people to whom the school belongs. But it is not intended that the Board should attempt to perform the details of administration necessary in the operation of the school. For that important duty, a Director and staff of professional assistants should be employed. The Board is to have **general** administration and supervision of the school, leaving the details of management and the execution of its policies to the Director and his assistants.

Most educational authorities agree there are four general areas of action which are responsibilities of a board:

1. The area of **policy-making:** The board is the authority for general local school regulations, programs, and procedures, within the framework of the Colombian school law.
2. The area of **operation:** The machinery and the process employed in dispatching board policy are included in this area. These activities involve board meetings, the selection of school personnel, and all other functions through which the Board gets its policies into actual practice in the schools.
3. The area of **appraisal:** After policies have been established by the Board and executed by the professional staff, the board is responsible for evaluating both the effectiveness of the policies and how well they have been put into practice.
4. The area of **planning:** One of the most important functions of the Board is planning for the continued effectiveness and further improvement of the educational system.

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[1] **Manual for School Board Member,** proposed by College of Education and Inter-American Schools Service. Pages 1-3

The school board performs one of its most important functions when it selects and appoints a new school director. The increased cooperative activity and participation of the American Association Schools and the regional superintendency, with the help of OOS, has made this job somewhat easier as more candidates become available. The ultimate responsibility must still rest with the board, however.

The Administrator

The relationship between the board and the director was also indicated in the Manual of 1962-63. At that time the Director's responsibilities were described as follows:

1. The Director should be responsible for carrying out all policies and rules and regulations established by the Board.
2. When matters not specifically covered by board policies arises, the Director should take appropriate action and report such action to the Board at the next regular meeting.
3. All individuals employed by the Board should be responsible, either directly or indirectly, to the Director.
4. The Director should make such rules and give such instructions to school employees as may be necessary to make the policies of the Board effective. He should be authorized to delegate responsibilities and assign duties, with the understanding that such delegation and assignment does not relieve the Director of responsibility.
5. Except when matters pertaining to his re-employment or salary are being discussed, the Director should be present at all meetings of the Board.
6. The Director should be responsible for preparing and submitting a preliminary budget for the ensuing fiscal year to the Board.
7. The Director should have the authority, within the limits of major appropriations approved by the Board, to approve and direct all purchases and expenditures.
8. The Director should submit his recommendations for all candidates for employment to the Board in writing. The Board, while having the authority to reject specific candidates, should employ other candidates only upon recommendation of the Director.
9. The Director should formulate and submit personnel policies requisite for efficient functioning of the school staff of the Board.
10. The Director should provide professional leadership for the school, should formulate educational policies, and should report regularly to the Board on all aspects of the system's educational program.

11. The Director should formulate and administer means of evaluating the work of each staff member and make his findings available to the Board.
12. The Director should be responsible to the Board for the maintenance, improvement, and needed expansion of buildings, sites, and other facilities.
13. The Director should serve as a representative of the school before the public.
14. The Director should keep a continuous inventory of all property, furniture, material, and supplies of the school.
15. The Director should prepare an annual school calendar and submit it to the Board for approval.
16. The Director should formulate and administer a plan for supervision of the schools.[2]

Consideration of the school faculties as participating agents in school planning has not been fully made in the overseas schools. Lack of precedent and the turnover of faculty members in the schools are probably partly responsible for this. Examination of the table will indicate the nature of faculty participation in the school planning processes, and the amount of involvement of Nationals is of particular interest.

The effort required to achieve full faculty participation must be considered worthwhile in the overseas schools, for the school faculties include people with many cultural, educational, and living experiences and represent a unique school resource. Effective utilization of these diverse talents should not only result in improvement of the school program and attempts to achieve the school's objectives, but also should provide the opportunity to develop methods for the formulation of effective curriculum modification plans. It is important to learn how bicultural educational cooperation can be achieved in order to employe the knowledge in other similar situations.

FACULTY COMMITTEES

The composition of faculty committees as shown in Table 11 indicates that only three of the seven schools utilize faculty committees for areas related to the program. The use of faculty committees warrants consideration as a means of improving the program as well as enhancing the concerted action of faculty in terms of a school's goal.

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[2] Ibid., pp. 26-27.

TABLE 11 FACULTY COMMITTEES

School	Name of Committee	Members	Nationality
Barranquilla			
	Language Arts	4	All U.S.
	Social Studies	4	3 U.S.; 1 Canadian
	Science	4	All U.S.
	Arithmetic	3	All U.S.
	Spanish	2	Colombian
Bogota			
	Schedules	7	All U.S.
	Social (El)	7	All U.S.
	Placement	3	2 U.S.; 1 Colombian
	Social (H.S.)	8	3 U.S.; 5 Colombian
	Library	4	2 U.S.; 1 Colombian; 1 other
	Bus	5	3 U.S.; 2 Colombian
Bucaramanga	NONE		
Cali	NONE		
Cartagena	Social		
Medellin	Curriculum	3	2 U.S.; 1 Colombian
Port-au-Prince	NONE	4	2 U.S.; 1 Colombian

Administrative Considerations

Whether the Manual for Board Directors is utilized or not will be up to the individual schools. General school policy should be carefully written and made widely available to all parties with responsibilities in the school. The organization or review of school policy offers an excellent opportunity to incorporate the ideas of the entire school staff in order to develop a policy that will meet with the approval of all concerned. All schools seeking or maintaining accreditation, of course, will have written a comprehensive school policy.

The operation of the bi-national schools involves numerous legal considerations which affect school administration. Included among these are local and national laws regarding school operations and the operation of a non-profit organization, employment practices in respect to both national and non-citizen employees, and licensing and taxation matters. Effective legal advice is important to satisfactorily meet these requirements, particularly as they may be unfamiliar to a new director. In addition to these legal matters, regulations regarding OOS school membership, participation in United States government financial assistance, and laws concerning the provision of visas and work permits, as well as contracts, must be understood. Administrative planning must deal with all these matters effectively, and may be able to do so through cooperative orientation between the schools.

The overseas schools face unusual problems. These include the necessity to import books and materials, which may require special licenses or provisions. Currency exchange requires special knowledge, as does provision in school planning for the fluctuation of currency value. All of these considerations make a thorough job of legal and administrative planning important.

LEGAL STATUS OF BINATIONAL SCHOOLS

All of the binational schools exist at the host country's discretion and even at best their existence can be described as precarious. While the schools' legal status is almost always ill-defined—to the point of their operation sometimes being clandestine—in actuality the host countries' treatment of them is almost always kind and generous with officials sometimes ignoring their own regulations to give the binational schools a "break". In many instances the binational schools are working examples of the finest kind of international cooperation.

Generally the schools make special efforts to comply with the laws of incorporation, the laws governing education, the local education authorities, and the expressed desires of their communities. Doing these things while at the same time trying to fulfill their original purpose (giving a U.S.-type education to the children of local North Americans) creates problems of programming, financing and scheduling that are seldom considered in any college of education's "problems" course. Although the schools' legal status is in some cases never clarified, in Table 12 the Association superintendents describe their situations.

TABLE 12
LEGAL STATUS OF THE SCHOOLS

School	Status
Barranquilla	"Approved by the local Secretary of Education for operation. Bachillerato program approved by Ministry of Education."
Bogota	"Awards Bachillerato degree for admission to Colombian Universities."
Bucaramanga	"Privately incorporated."
Cali	"Expect to become authorized. Students do enter college in Colombia after special exams."
Cartagena	"Authorized to conduct the school; official accreditation is being sought."
Medellin	"Legally registered and accredited by Colombian Ministry of Education."
Port-au-Prince	"We are a public utility and thus exempt from taxes. We have no supervision from the local government."

The assistance available to the individual schools through the efforts of outside agencies is considerable. Planning which makes use of these resources will result in better schools. The Colombian American School Association and its new superintendency project offer close cooperation with the OOS. The Southern Association of Colleges and Schools as the accrediting institution has had long experience in the field of Latin American education. Finally, the extensive educational in-service and consultative programs of the University of Alabama make available to the schools in Colombia and Haiti the resources of a major university for planning and instructional improvement. The school which achieves the cooperative incorporation of all these resources will be on the way to academic excellence.

THE RECOGNITION—ACCREDITATION STATUS OF THE SCHOOLS

The accreditation status of the schools is shown in Table 13. Three of the schools have been recognized by the local state government. The other schools are working toward this end. While some administrators may feel that local state recognition is meaningless for a U.S. curriculum, it is true that working towards this goal offers an opportunity for valuable interaction with the national educational leaders.

Most of the binational schools value the experience of working toward accreditation by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. The importance of the self studies, the examination of objectives and the determination of direction of growth, are obvious. A school cannot go through SACS evaluation without at least learning *something important about itself.*

TABLE 13 ACCREDITATION STATUS

Items	Barranquilla	Bogota	Bucaramanga	Cali	Cartagena	Medellin	Port-au-Prince
Local State Gov't.	6-12	7-12	K-8	......	......	......	......
National Gov't.	6–12	7–12	K–8	7–12	......	7–12	......
S.A.C.S.	7–12	7–12	......	7–12	1–9	7–12	El.–12

School Records

A survey of the histories of the Association schools will indicate that many of them are institutions of long standing. An important factor in their continuation and improvement is the effective preservation of their essential records. School records of three basic types must be carefully maintained:

1. Student records which meet both legal and professional requirements. Improving methods of discovering important information about students from bi-national and bi-lingual backgrounds should soon be available. Counseling and guidance information now available should also prove of great assistance in making wise decisions regarding individual students.
2. Financial records for the overseas schools should be most complete. Preservation of non-profit status requires that the records be inclusive and up to date. The need to have readily available information concerning the financing of the school may be essential in situations where the value of the national currency fluctuates. The usual records of expenditures and expenses are important, as are those concerned with the inventory of school property.
3. Policy records such as Board minutes, faculty committee records, and administrative records are important in insuring a continuity of operation within the school.

Those working in the overseas schools need to realize how important complete records are to the maintenance of the school. Changes of personnel and the lack of communication with former faculty and staff members make good records indespensable to informed decision making. Too often good plans have inferior results because changes in the personnel and lack of information caused confusion about objectives and methods for attaining them. Professional decisions utilizing previous performance records as well as guidance recommendations and standardized testing results will tend to be in the student's best interest. Planning for future expansion, making program changes, and organizational decision-making all necessitate good records.

Administration: Recruitment and Salaries (1967-68)

Recent developments have improved the prospects for recruiting administrative personnel of high quality in the overseas schools. Increased involvement in international education by the local schools through the O/OS projects and the University of Alabama assistance program have expanded the field from which leadership can be recruited and selected.

Projects such as the school-to-school program under O/OS sponsorship also offer opportunities for administrative exchanges with benefits realized by both the overseas schools and the participating local United States school system.

Ultimately the schools themselves may prove able to identify and to develop a considerable proportion of their educational leadership. The participation of staff members in the decision making processes in the schools should afford leadership experiences to people with an involvement in the schools, and may prove to be a most productive source of administrative prospects.

Salary considerations are important in attracting and retaining quality administrators. The chart indicates the distribution of school administrators in the schools and shows the salary ranges available to support these positions.

It is hoped that instances of insufficient salary may be corrected in the interest of improving the schools. Administrative salary support is sometimes available through O/OS, and may, in cases of school-to-school exchanges of administrators, be supplemented by the participating United States school system. Finally, however, local school boards must make a commitment to educational excellence and then provide appropriate administrative salaries to obtain leadership to achieve this goal.

Table 14 gives the salaries paid to administrative personnel. In the case of Port-au-Prince the low-salaried administrator is an assistant principal, part-time teacher—an American with an M.A. In every case the top salary goes to the chief administrator, the highest paid (Bogota) receiving more than twice as much as the lowest (Cartagena). Three of the top positions are on the same step and five out of the seven schools pay their chief administrators or their principals very nearly equal amounts.

TABLE 14
ADMINISTRATIVE SALARY RANGE

	Barranquilla	**Bogota**	**Bucaramanga**	**Cali**	**Cartagena**	**Medellin**	**Haiti**
15000-up		1					
12000-14999		2		1			
10000-11999			1			1	1
9000- 9999							
8000- 8999	1						
7000- 7999							
6000- 6999	2				1		
5000- 5999		1		1		1	
4000- 4999							1
under-4000	1						

Faculty: Recruitment, Contract Provisions and Salaries

The professional staffs of the binational schools are acquired from various sources: (1) Local National teachers of the native language who may be bilingual. National teachers of subject areas or grades who are bilingual and are trained in a National school of education; American wives of American businessmen or Nationals. These wives are most often college trained and sometimes are former teachers. (2) United States teachers who are found in the States are invariably college trained and are often experienced. (3) Third country—many binational schools have teachers who are third-country Nationals. Often the teachers from this source have language skills or other specialized training that is of special value to the school.

For the teachers that are sought outside of the host country special considerations must be made regarding travel, settlement costs, currency exchange, language problems, work permits or licensing, necessary health precautions, and the local culture and customs. Failure to provide the neophyte teacher with adequate attention in any of these points can result in confusion and dissatisfaction.

It should be obvious that complete details concerning a position must be given to a prospective teacher before he leaves his home if the term of employment is to be satisfactory. In doing this the overseas school must take the initiative and volunteer the necessary information since in many cases the person who has never been outside of his home country does not know what questions to ask and as a result is either naively confident or unjustifiably fearful. Full and frank communication between the employing school and the prospective teacher is a fundamental necessity to satisfactory teacher service.

There are various means through which the schools make contact with the prospective teachers. Many are hired because some person already in the overseas community knows someone at home who is interested. Others are found through the Office of Overseas Schools in the United States State Department, and still others are recruited by the International Schools Service.

Probably most teachers who teach overseas are located by the school superintendents who make periodic business trips to the United States and do recruiting for their own and neighboring schools.

A regional superintendency which has loosely grouped the schools at Barranquilla, Cartagena, and Medellin has done much of the recruiting for the three schools for the past two years. If this proves to be successful, other schools may desire to explore the feasibility of such an intermediate unit.

Another source of teaching personnel is the School-to-School project which couples overseas schools with schools in the States. Numerous mutual benefits are derived from this relationship, one of which is the enchange of teachers. Teachers in the United States schools generally are exchanged for a semester or a year and are enriched by the experience. As teachers become acquainted with the overseas opportunities recruitment for the schools is made easier.

TABLE 15

CONTRACT PROVISIONS

Schools	Written Contract	Length of Time	Renewable?	After 1 year work is return transportation paid?	When is return transportation paid?
Barranquilla	yes	1 year	At school's option	No	After 2 successful years
Bogota	yes	1 year	At school's option	No	After 2 years
Bucaramanga	yes	2 years	At school's option	No	After completion of contract
Cali	yes	Indefinite		No	After each 2 years of work
Cartagena	yes	2 years	At school's option	No	Whenever the teacher returns
Medellin	yes	2 years	At school's option	No	After completion of contract
Port-au-Prince	yes	1 year	At school's option	No	Never

As is indicated in Table 15 all the schools give their teachers a written contract, and most of them stipulate that return passage to the point of origin in the United States will be paid only after the completion of two years of work. If the teacher resigns, is dismissed, or if the one-year contract is not renewed, the teacher must pay for his own return passage. Since the school is usually obligated to the host country to guarantee the teacher's return to his home, most of the schools hold back a portion of the salary that will cover this cost. Whether or not such action on the part of the school is legal has yet to be determined.

Faculty Salaries

Tables 16 and 17 give a rather complete picture of faculty salary distributions. The need to raise all salaries to a reasonable level, in addition to meeting rising living costs, poses substantial financial responsibilities for the schools. Moreover, the decision to provide quality education must result in the determination to support adequate faculty salaries. In the search for excellence provision of satisfactory salaries at the staff as well as the administrative level is imperative.

Benefits to teachers must be viewed as another means of achieving faculty quality. Benefits which provide additional reasons for accepting appointment to the staff promote effective recruiting. In addition, benefits may help teachers to adapt to a new living environment effectively and result in a more productive staff. The proposed program in Barranquilla for a car allowance, as an example, is an exceptional undertaking, and while all schools can not emulate this in terms of the size of the benefit, all can search for ways to make it clear that the staff is held in high esteem and that their skills and effort are highly valued. It must be remembered that staff members may have forfeited insurance, pension, social security and similar benefits to work in the binational schools.

TABLE 16

NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN VARIOUS SALARY CATEGORIES BY SCHOOL

U. S. Dollars Salary Range	Barranquilla Full Time	Barranquilla Part Time	Bogota Full Time	Bogota Part Time	Bucaramanga Full Time	Bucaramanga Part Time	Cali Full Time	Cali Part Time	Cartagena Full Time	Cartagena Part Time	Medellin Full Time	Medellin Part Time	Port-au-Prince Full Time	Port-au-Prince Part Time
Above 6000			30										3	
5000-5999	2												1	
4000-4999													1	
3000-3999	17		22						9		16		4	
2000-2999	7				7				6		6		7	
1500-1999					6						2	2		
1000-1499					5						2	1		
Less than 1000		6									4			

TABLE 17

Funds need to Increase Full Time Salaries to Certain Levels

Salary Levels	Barranquilla Karl C. Parrish	Bogota Nueva Granada	Bucaramanga Panamericano	Cali Bolivar	Cartagena Jorge Washington	Medellin Columbus	Port-au-Prince Union
To 3000	3500	—	19000	No Data	3000	1300	No Data
To 4000	19000	11000	30000		14000	22000	
To 5000	43000	33000	41000		24000	35000	
To 6000	44000	55000	52000		30000	48000	

Salaries for Professional Personnel

In answer to the question "Are National teachers and United States citizen teachers with the same qualifications on the same salary schedule?" the following answers were given:

Barranquilla —Yes, if both are U.S. educated
Bogota —No
Bucaramanga —Yes
Cali —No
Cartagena —No
Medellin —Yes, if both are United States educated, except that part of the U.S. teachers' salaries are in dollars
Port-au-Prince —Yes, but "Contract teachers from the U.S. may be paid a monthly stipend in addition to the regular salary scale"

The answers to the above question regarding United States and National teachers indicate a general difference in the two salary bases. Only Bucaramenga gives a flat yes. A study of the salary schedules raises many questions that can only be answered by an intimate knowledge of the schools' operations.

Medellin appears to have the closest approach to equality in the two salaries. Barranquilla probably has the most logical answer assuming that not having a United States education actually results in a less efficient teacher.

Salary Schedules

The salary schedules of the various schools differ widely, therefore, verbatim copies of each schedule as indicated in Tables 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23 and 24 are included in this report. According to the schedules, the lowest salary offered to a qualified teacher is United States $92.00 (P$1500.00) per month, and the highest amount that a classroom teacher with an M.A. can earn is United States $529.00 per month. Both of the figures are based upon a 14-month year (10 months salary, two months vacation pay, one month of **prima**, and one month of **cesantia** as required by Colombian law).

While salaries appear to be very low when judged from United States standards, they usually compare favorably with the salaries paid to Colombian teachers.

The problem of the "double-standard" in salaries (a higher salary paid to a United States teacher for doing the same work as a National teacher) is a problem with which the administrators of all Latin American binational schools are confronted. Many school board members feel that to pay all the teachers United States salaries would not only wreak havoc in the national teaching community, it would bankrupt the schools. To pay unequal salaries for equal work raises ethical questions and the eyebrows of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) investigators.

It is a dilemma to which no completely satisfactory solutions have as yet been found.

Barranquilla Salary Schedule

All salaries unless otherwise stipulated in the teaching contract are paid on a 12-month basis **plus** casantia and prima—in effect a 14-month year.

Teachers entering their fifth year of teaching at Colegio Karl C. Parrish receive an additional United States $6.00 per month salary. This increment continues through the ninth year of service. Thus the maximum payable for time in service at Colegio Parrish is about United States $30.00 per month additional salary.

Teachers with advanced degrees receive an additional United States $3.00 per month per degree.

Part time teachers' salaries are computed on the basis of a seven period day. Thus if they are employed for four periods they will receive 4/7 of the appropriate salary listed in the schedule. Substitutes are paid at the rate of $1.00 per period. (See Table 18.)

Bogota Salary Schedule

The Bogota salary schedule as shown in Table 19 is a composite of two salary sheets that give the salaries for National and Import teachers. The salaries given are in pesos except for the figures enclosed in parentheses. The latter are dollar amounts paid to United States import teachers in addition to the peso salary. Dollar amounts are not shown for all steps on the salary schedule presumbly because it is unlikely that a person fitting into such categories would ever be employed.

Bucaramanga Salary Schedule

The Bucaramanga salary schedule (Table 20) is very simple. It is the only schedule that has a step for a teacher of Ph.D. rank; however, the amount shown as being paid for such a rank is not generous. There is no credit given for experience.

Cali Salary Schedule

The salary policy of the Colegio Bolivar is shown in Table 21.

TABLE 18
BARRANQUILLA SALARY SCHEDULE

Years Taught	Less Than 4-Years College	Colombian Credential	U.S. Import[a]	Local Hire With U.S. Degree
0-2	111.00	154.00	154.00	215.00
3	123.00	160.00	160.00	222.00
4	135.00	166.00	166.00	228.00
5 or more	148.00	172.00	172.00	233.00

[a] U.S. Import teachers, that is teachers actually imported by the Colegio Parrish, receive an additional U.S. $100.00 per month resettlement allowance.

TABLE 19

COLEGIO NUEVA GRANADA, BOGOTA, SALARY SCHEDULE

(Monthly payments—14-month year)

Step	Years	Under 2 Years in College A	2-4 Years Escalafon B	B.A. Degree Licenciado C	12 Hours of Graduate Study D	24 Hours of Graduate Study E	M.A. Degree F	12 Hours Above M.A. G	24 Hours Above M.A. H	36 Hours Above M.A. I
1	–1	2592	3037	3259(114)[a]	3370(129)[a]	3480(143)[a]	3592(158)[a]	3702(172)[a]	3815(187)[a]	3929(201)[a]
2	2	2702	3148	3370(129)	3480(143)	3592(158)	3702(172)	3815(187)	3929(201)	4047(215)
3	3	2814	3259	3480(143)	3592(158)	3702(172)	3815(187)	3929(201)	4047(215)	4168(229)
4	4	2926	3370	3592(158)	3702(172)	3815(187)	3929(201)	4047(215)	4168(229)	4293(243)
5	5	3037	3480	3702(172)	3815(187)	3929(201)	4047(215)	4168(229)	4293(243)	4422(257)
6	6	3148	3592	3815(187)	3929(201)	4047(215)	4168(229)	4293(243)	4422(257)	4555
7	7	3259	3702	3929(201)	4047(215)	4168(229)	4293(243)	4422(257)	4555	4692
8	8–9	3370	3815	4047(215)	4168(229)	4293(243)	4422	4555	4692	4833
9	10–11	3480	3929	4168(229)	4293(243)	4422(257)	4555	4692	4833	4978
10	12–13	3592	4047	4293(243)	4422(257)	4555	4692	4833	4978	5127
11	14–15		4168	4422(257)	4555	4692	4833	4978	5127	5281
12	16–17		4293	4555	4555	4833	4978	5127	5281	5439
13	18–20		4422	4692	4833	4978	5127	5281	5439	5602

Note: A teacher is given credit for a maximum of five years experience in other schools when he begins teaching here.

[a] Import teachers are paid the amounts in parenthesis in U.S. $ in addition to the peso amounts shown.

TABLE 20
COLEGIO PANAMERICANO, BUCARAMANGA, TEACHER SALARY SCHEDULE

Graduates	Degree	Time	Salary (Pesos Month)
			U.S. $
University	Ph.D.	Full	$3,000.00–($185.00)
University	Masters	Full	$2,800.00–($173.00)
University	B.A.	Full	$2,500.00–($154.00)
University	Any	¾ Three fourths	$2,000.00–($123.00)
Normal School	Normalista	Full	$1,500.00–2,000.00 ($92.00–123.00)
		Hourly basis	$20.00–($1.35)

Teachers employed at the Colegio Bolivar are identified in three categories. Their salaries are calculated upon the principles outlined here.

1. Teachers hired and brought from the United States:
   a. The salaries should be sufficient to attract the best of those people who wish to come to South America.
   b. For each year employed by the Bolivar, a teacher will be provided a one-way tourist flight by the most direct route to or from the point of hire.
   c. An experienced teacher can begin in the Bolivar salary schedule no higher than at the fourth year level.
   d. A teacher who stays a third, fourth, or more years at the school will receive a 10 percent increase over the salary stipulated in the scale, up to a sixth year limit.
   e. A baggage allowance of up to United States $100.00 will be provided for each teacher.
   f. Upon arrival in Cali, each teacher will be given a pesos $3,000 relocation allowance. If the teacher stays only one year, this allowance will be deducted from the final salary payment. If the teacher stays two years there will be no deduction.
   g. The dependents of a teacher will be given free tuition, unless the employer of the other parent grants an educational allowance.
   h. Seventy-five dollars per month will be paid in addition to the peso salary.
2. Teachers who have been trained in the states or in English speaking institutions and are hired locally:
   a. The salaries will be at least equal to those offered in other educational institutions in Cali, and often better.
   b. Each year of experience up through six years will give an increase over the base salary.

TABLE 21

COLEGIO BOLIVAR, CALI, SALARY SCHEDULE[a]

Years Experience	Local Non-Degreed	Local Hired Licenciado and U.S. Degree	U.S. Import B.S. Degree U.S. $100 Plus	U.S. Import M.S. Degree U.S. $100 Plus
Beginning	$2,500 mo. (154) 35,000 yr. (2156)	$3,600 mo. (222) 50,400 yr. (3108)	$2,925 mo. (180) 40,950 yr. (2520)	$3,050 mo. (188) 42,700 yr. (2632)
1 year	$2,175 mo. (167) 38,010 yr. (2338)	$3,815 mo. (235) 53,410 yr. (3290)	$3,050 mo. (188) 42,700 yr. (2632)	$3,175 mo. (195) 44,450 yr. (2730)
2 years	$2,930 mo. (180) 41,020 yr. (2520)	$4,030 mo. (248) 56,420 yr. (3472)	$3,175 mo. (195) 44,450 yr. (2730)	$3,390 mo. (209) 47,460 yr. (2926)
3 years	$3,145 mo. (194) 44,030 yr. (2716)	$4,245 mo. (261) 59,430 yr. (3654)	$3,390 mo. (209) 47,460 yr. (2926)	$3,605 mo. (222) 50,470 yr. (3108)
4 years	$3,360 mo. (207) 47,040 yr. (2898)	$4,460 mo. (274) 62,440 yr. (3836)	$3,605 mo. (222) 50,470 yr. (3108)	$3,820 mo. (235) 53,480 yr. (3290)
5 years	$3,575 mo. (220) 50,050 yr. (3080)	$4,675 mo. (288) 65,450 yr. (4032)	$3,820 mo. (235) 53,480 yr. (3290)	$4,035 mo. (248) 56,490 yr. (3472)
6 years	$3,790 mo. (233) 53,060 yr. (3262)	$4,890 mo. (301) 68,460 yr. (4214)	$4,035 mo. (248) 56,490 yr. (3472)	$4,250 mo. (262) 59,500 yr. (3668)

[a] Based upon 14 month year.

   - c. An experienced teacher can begin in the Bolivar salary schedule no higher than at the fourth year level.
   - d. The dependents of a teacher will be given free tuition, unless the employer of the other parent grants an educational allowance.
   - e. No dollar allowance will be paid.
3. Teachers trained in Colombia:
   - a. The salaries will be at least equal to those official rates published by the Colombian government, and often better.
   - b. A teacher who has a "Licenciado" degree will begin with a base salary higher than that of the person who has no degree.
   - c. Usually no credit will be given for experience in Colombian schools, because the method is so different from that which is required in the American school.
   - d. Each year of experience up through six years will give an increase over the base salary.
   - e. The dependents of a teacher will be given free tuition unless the employer of the other parent grants an educational allowance.
   - f. No dollar allowance will be paid.

Cartagena Salary Schedule

Table 22 shows the salary schedule for teachers at Colegio Jorge Washington, Cartagena, Colombia. The first part of the table shows the salary schedule applicable only to locally available teachers, or to teachers whose presence in Colombia is not considered to be solely for the purpose of gaining employment at Colegio Jorge Washington. Credit will be given, in all categories, to a maximum of three years experience prior to employment at Colegio Jorge Washington.

Salary and maximum level of attainment for other than United States trained teachers will be determined on an individual basis at the discretion of the Board of Directors.

The second part of the table shows the salary schedule which is applicable only to United States trained teachers whose presence in Colombia is solely for the purpose of gaining employment at Colegio Jorge Washington.

In accordance with Colombian laws, a yearly bonus (Prima) and a severance allowance (Cesantia), together amounting to approximately one and two-thirds of the monthly peso salary, will be paid to each teacher yearly. In other words, the total yearly peso income which includes all bonuses may be computed by multiplying the applicable figure from the table schedule by 11⅔. The rate of exchange for the Colombian peso fluctuates. It has been staying between 16 and 18 pesos for one United States dollar.

TABLE 22
COLEGIO JORGE WASHINGTON, CARTAGENA, SALARY SCHEDULE

Years of Experience	Non-Degree	Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree
Monthly Salary Paid for 10 Months Per Year			
0		3000	3200
1	2500	3100	3300
2	2600	3200	3400
3	2700	3300	3500
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
10	3400	4000	4200
Monthly Salary[a]			
0		3000 Pesos	
1		3100 Pesos	
2		3200 Pesos	
3		3300 Pesos	
etc.		etc.	
10		4000 Pesos	

[a] Paid for 10 months per year for teachers holding Bachelor's Degree.

Teachers holding a Master's degree will receive an additional 200 pesos per month added to the monthly salary. Credit will be given only to a maximum of three years experience prior to employment at Colegio Jorge Washington. Medical benefits and life insurance in accordance with Colombian laws will be available for each teacher. Housing is not provided by the school.

Transportation and resettlement allowance is given below.

Resettlement

In addition to the peso salary, a special dollar resettlement allowance is paid. This allowance amounts to US $1,000.00 per year. If the teacher so elects, this allowance will be paid in monthly installments; such monthly installments not to exceed US $100.00.

Length of employment will normally be for a two-year period.

Transportation

Teachers signing a two year contract will receive a tourist-class air passage from and to the airport nearest the point of hire. In addition, a travel allowance, based on the following schedule, will be paid to cover the cost of visa, taxi, passport, hotel, shipment of personal effects, etc.:

> 75 dollars if point of origin is west [sic] of the Mississippi River.

100 dollars if point of origin is between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains.

125 dollars if point of origin is west of the Rocky Mountains.

Upon successful completion of a two year contract, similar amounts will be paid for return transportation and travel allowance.

Teachers signing a one year contract will receive only one-way transportation and travel allowance.

No transportation or travel allowance provision is made for dependents of the employed teacher.

Medellin Salary Schedule

Table 23 shows the salary schedule for the Columbus School, Medellin. Listed below are stipulations which apply:

a. Return passage is paid upon completion of two-year contract.
b. U.S. citizens are granted a round-trip to the U.S. every two years on the re-signing of a new two-year contract—unless such transportation is provided by husband's employer.
c. Additional salary for additional duties other than classroom responsibility, depending on nature of responsibility and time required.
d. Dependents of teachers receive free tuition, unless an educational allowance is provided by husband's employer.
e. Baggage and visa costs up to U.S. $125 per teacher.
f. Teachers who renew their contracts receive 10% cash bonuses based on the highest previous salary base—assuming such teachers are U.S. imports on a two-year basis.
g. Colombian teachers educated in the U.S. receive the same salary that U.S. teacher receive, but in pesos.

TABLE 23

COLUMBUS SCHOOL, MEDELLIN, SALARY SCHEDULE

Years of Experience	Colombian Credentials 1-4 Years University	U.S. Import B.A. Degree	U.S. Import M.A. Degree
		(U.S. $100)	(U.S. $100)
0	mo. 2,300 (142)	mo. 2,525 (155)	mo. 2,885 (178)
	yr. 32,000 (1982)	yr. 35,350 (2175)	yr. 40,390 (2486)
1	mo. 2,400 (148)	mo. 2,625	mo. 2,985 (184)
	yr. 33,600 (2068)	yr. 36,750 (2262)	yr. 41,790 (2577)
2	mo. 2,500 (154)	mo. 2,725 (168)	mo. 3,085 (190)
	yr. 35,000 (2156)	yr. 38,150 (2348)	yr. 43,190 (2658)
3	Mo. 2,600 (160)	mo. 2,825 (174)	mo. 3,185 (196)
	yr. 36,400 (2240)	yr. 39,550 (2434)	yr. 44,590 (2744)
4	mo. 2,700 (166)	mo. 2,925 (180)	mo. 3,285 (202)
	yr. 37,800 (2324)	yr. 40,950 (2520)	yr. 45,990 (2830)
5	Mo. 2,800 (172)	mo. 3,025 (186)	mo. 3,385 (208)
	yr. 39,200 (2408)	yr. 42,350 (2606)	yr. 47,390 (2916)

Note: Amounts in parentheses are dollar equivalents.

Port-au-Prince Salary Schedule

The Union School, Port-au-Prince, Haiti teachers' salary scale is shown in Table 24. The following applies to this scale.

Salary

A. Salaries shall be paid on an 11 month basis. Three checks may be paid on the first of June. In the event that the teacher resigns before the end of the contract, the board may withhold as penalty that portion of the annual salary which has accumulated for the two months of summer payment. Teachers contracting for less than a year shall be paid in full at the end of the contract.

B. Contract teachers from the United States may be paid a monthly stipend in addition to the regular salary scale, dependent upon their particular qualifications.

1. They shall receive twelve equal payments for their total salary. The first payment shall be made upon the date of arrival for duty.
2. Administration leave shall be charged against regular salary only for 1967-68 $6,000 + $2,500.

TABLE 24

UNION SCHOOL, PORT-AU-PRINCE, SALARY SCHEDULE

Previous Years of Experience	Less than A.B. Degree	A.B. Degree	A.B. Degree plus 20 units	M.A. Degree
0	1,800	2,200	2,420	2,640
1	1,890	2,310	2,530	2,750
2	1,980	2,420	2,640	2,860
3	2,070	2,530	2,750	2,970
4		2,640	2,860	3,080
		2,750	2,970	3,190
		2,860	3,080	3,300
		2,970	3,190	3,410
		3,080	3,300	3,520
		3,190	3,410	3,630
		3,300	3,520	3,740
			3,630	3,850
				3,960

C. Substitute teachers shall receive $10 a day for a full day, or $2.00 an hour if less than five hours.

D. The librarian shall be placed on the above pay scale according to library experience and degree held.

Credits

A. Credit shall be given for up to five years of experience other than in Union School.

B. Credit for experience other than in an American School shall be dependent upon the approval of a reviewing committee.

C. A reviewing committee comprised of a board member, the director, and a faculty member shall approve units of graduate credit, community workshop credit or application for travel credit. Graduate credits earned prior to employment at the Union School may be accepted by this committee upon receipt of transcript from the academic institution where these credits were earned.

Benefits

A. Sick Leave: Each teacher will be allowed ten days sick leave annually. In case a teacher needs more than ten days of sick leave during any one year, the cost of the substitute shall be deducted from the teacher's salary.

B. Compassion Leave:

1. In case of death in the immediate family, three days leave shall be granted without less of salary. The immediate family shall be defined as parents, spouse, children or grandchildren of the teacher.
2. In case of serious illness in the immediate family, a teacher will pay the cost of the substitute only for a period not to exceed five days per year. Additional leave because of family illness will be charged at the rate for administrative leave.

C. Administrative Leave:

1. Administrative leave, or leave for reasons other than those outlined above, will be charged against the regular salary at rate of 1/190th of the annual salary for each day of absence.

Duties

A. The teaching day will be set annually by the school board and director.

B. Teachers will be on duty during all school hours, and at other reasonable times as requested by the director and the school board.

FRINGE BENEFITS

Closely related to salaries are the "fringe" benefits that are provided by the schools. Some sort of social security, job insurance and health services are provided by the state; however where a high rate of inflation is considered to be normal these social services are weakened to the point of being ineffectual. Most of the U.S. teachers pay little or no attention to the national social services except to occasionally wish that they did not take such a large part of the pay check. Other benefits that probably are more important are provided by the schools. Table 25 reveals those reported.

TABLE 25

Barranquilla	**Borrowing money**—Teachers can get a 2-month salary advance at the beginning of the school year. It can be repaid over a 10-month period. **Conferences**—Staff members can attend conference at school expense within limits imposed by the budget. **Leaves of absence**—Teachers can get leaves for study, travel or special training. **Housing allowance**—No. **Furniture allowance**—No. **Car allowance**—No. **Insurance**—Yes.
Bogota	**Borrowing money**—No provisions made for teachers. **Conferences**—Staff members can attend conferences at school expense if conferences are mainly local. **Leaves of absence**—Policy is being planned. **Housing allowance**—Yes. **Furniture**—Can be rented from the school. **Car allowance**—No. **Insurance**—Group life insurance P. $30,000.00 paid by school.
Bucaramanga	**Borrowing money**—Money not to exceed 1-month salary lent at discretion of the director. **Conferences**—Staff members may go to conferences at school expense with "reasonable" limits. **Leaves of absence**—Yes, for travel, study or special training in the U.S. after completion of 1-year contract. **Housing allowance**—No. **Furniture allowance**—No. **Car allowance**—No. **Insurance**—No.

Cali	**Borrowing money**—Director may approve loans up to P$500 for emergencies. The board president may grant loans up to P$2000. **Conferences**—No. **Leaves of absences**—U. S. study for some is being planned. **Housing allowance**—No. **Furniture allowance**—No. A "resettlement" allowance of P$3000 is given to beginning U.S. teacher. **Car allowance**—No. (transportation to and from the school is provided.) **Insurance**—No.
Cartagena	**Borrowing money**—At discretion of director. **Conferences**—No. **Leaves of absence**—No. **Housing allowance**—No. **Furniture allowance**—No. **Car allowance**—No. (Transportation to and from the school is provided.) **Insurance**—Yes. (Membership in a social club is provided.)
Medellin	**Borrowing money**—Only as salary advances or from the PTA. **Conferences**—No. **Leaves of absence**—Leaves are granted when substitutes are available. **Housing allowance.**—No. **Furniture allowance**—Yes. **Car allowance**—No. **Insurance**—No.
Port-au-Prince	**Borrowing money**—No. **Conferences**—Yes, the director goes to SACS convention, etc. **Leaves of absences**—No. **Housing allowance**—No. **Furniture allowance**—No. **Car allowance**—No. **Insurance**—No.

All of the schools make the payments as required by law for the government retirement programs. Since insurance for the employees is reported to be required by law in Colombia it is interesting to note that only two of the schools provide it. Other than that at least half the schools grant little in the way of "fringe" benefits.

EDUCATIONAL PREPARATION AND QUALIFICATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF

As shown by Table 26 by far the largest number of teachers have bachelor's degrees only, which generally means that they are young and that a sizeable proportion of them are probably planning to do further professional study at least to the M.A. level.

Many teachers at this stage in their careers might be induced to spend more than one or two contract terms in the binational schools with an in-service program that helps them do what they should do—advance their careers through higher education. This opportunity must be available to National as well as U.S. teachers. This type of program should probably not only include U.S.-type advanced education for teachers working in English, it might also advantageously include Colombian teachers working in Spanish.

TABLE 26 EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF

	Barranquilla	Bogota	Bucaramanga	Cali	Cartagena	Medellin	Port-au-Prince
No Degree	4	2	4	6	1	5	
Escalafonada	3	2	6	?	1	7	
Licenciada	2	10	3	1	2	1	
Bachelors	21	35	6	22	9	18	17
M.A. or M.E.	7	5	2	5	2	2	3

The above figures will add up to more than the number of teachers in any of the schools because many of the staff have more than one degree. This obviously is true of those with Masters Degrees.

NATIONALITY OF TEACHING AND STAFF PERSONNEL

Most of teachers in the binational schools of Colombia come from the United States, in fact a study of Table 27 shows that the North American teachers outnumber the Colombians in all but one school. In another school the ratio is more than 4 North Americans for each Colombian. In other "service-type" positions the Colombians predominate, as shown.

TABLE 27 NATIONALITY OF PERSONNEL

	Barranquilla	Bogota	Bucaramanga	Cali	Cartagena	Medellin	Port-au-Prince
Teachers							
U.S.	14	37	5	18	8	15	11
National	5	9	7	11	4	9	4
Other	3	----	1	3	1	1	1
Librarians							
U.S.	----	----	----	1	----	----	1
National	1	----	----	1	2	1	
Other	----	1	----	----	1	----	----
Counselors							
U.S.	1	----	----	----	----	----	----
National	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Other	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Bus. Mgrs.-Book-Kprs.							
U.S.	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
National	1	1	----	----	1	1	----
Other	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Secretaries							
U.S.	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
National	4	3	----	3	1	3	1
Other	----	1	----	----	----	----	----
Tcher-Ass'ts							
U.S.	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
National	4	----	----	----	----	4	----
Other	1	----	----	----	----	----	----

IMPROVING PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

One of the most vexing problems for the knowledgeable administrator of a binational school is that of maintaining and improving professional personnel. Many teachers feel that working in a foreign situation places them on a starvation diet as far as professional growth is concerned and it is the administrator's responsibility to somehow supply professional nourishment to his staff. This can be done in many ways—by example, through professional literature, books and periodicals, work shops, conferences, in-service programs and opportunities for graduate study. The latter have been very successful in some schools because it combines the teachers' interests in gaining graduate credit with the immediate need for professionally broadened horizons.

Financially supported by the Office of Overseas Schools, the Association of Colombian-American Binational Schools in Colombia has been actively involved in an in-service graduate study program with one of the U.S. state universities. This is described in detail elsewhere but Table 28 indicates the interest that is evident in only the second year of the program. All of the schools have participated in some parts of the program and have utilized the consultative

TABLE 28 MAINTAINING AND IMPROVING PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

		Faculty Participating in Grad. Programs in Colombia						Stipends Needed to Complete Grad. Study in U.S.					
	Factors	67–68	68–69	69–70	70–71	71–72	72–73	67–68	68–69	69–70	70–71	71–72	72–73
Karl C. Parrish School Barranquilla	Number	(1) 15	18	20	22	22	22	(2) 6	7	8	9	10	11
	Stipend	$750	$900	$1000	$1100	$1100	$1100	$3500	$4000	$4500	$5000	$5500	$6000
Nueva Granada Bogota	Number												
	Stipend												
Colegio Panamericano Bucaramanga	Number												
	Stipend												
Colegio Bolivar Cali	Number	7	6	7	7			6					
	Stipend							$1500					
Jorge Washington Cartagena	Number	2	3	5	5	5	5	1		3		5	
	Stipend	$100	$150	$250	$250	$250	$250	$500		$1650		$2750	
Columbus School Medellin	Number	1	1										
	Stipend	0	0										
Union School Port-au-Prince, Haiti	Number	9	11	12	13	14	15	2	3	4	5	7	8
	Stipend	$450	$550	$600	$650	$700	$750	$1200	$1750		$2400	$4000	$4500

(1) The tuition fee for courses taught in Colombia is $50 per student; therefore 15 x 50 requires $750.

(2) Study by teachers in Colombia on-campus requires $500-750 each for support for one summer session to earn 12 semester hours of credit.

services offered. This chart shows that a large proportion of the staffs of several of the schools want in-service training that gives them graduate credit.

In order to carry the graduate credit on to the logical end of gaining a graduate degree it is necessary to do some of the work on-campus. This entails either summer study or a leave of absence for study during the regular term. Several of the schools are doing both and stipends have been made available to assist. The chart is a projection of possible needs for such assistance in the next five years.

TEACHER/STUDENT RATIO

Each of the schools, with the exception of Bucaramanga, seems to feel that it has an excellent teacher/student ratio and hopes to maintain it as the student body expands. As shown in Table 27—three of the schools are close to the Southern Association of College and Schools standard of 1/22.

While there does not appear to be any research to support the contention that a class should contain no more than 25 or 30 students, it is generally conceded that larger classes become difficult to teach efficiently. That there is an ideal minimum size below which a class should not be taught can certainly be supported for economic reasons. It can probably be supported for academic reasons also as an important influence in learning is student interaction; however the fact that many of the students are working in an unfamiliar language (whether Spanish or English) makes smaller classes even more desirable than in the U.S.

One important reason for not having small, highly specialized classes is lack of adequate finances. How small can classes be and still supply the economic strength necessary to provide the students with adequate educative services and experiences? This problem can only be treated by the schools themselves in terms of financial support that is available.

TABLE 29 AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER TEACHER 1967-69

	Barranquilla	Bogota	Bucaramanga	Cali	Cartagena	Medellin	Port-au-Prince
No. of Tchs.	29	37	15	35	13	25	15
T/S	1/21	1/30	1/14	1/20	1/18	1/22	1/16

PROJECTION OF NEED FOR FULL-TIME TEACHERS

Table 30 indicates the number of full-time teachers that the administrators of the schools anticipate they will need for the next five years. This is based upon the growth projected in Table 32. The projected cost increase as shown in Table 35 theoretically should cover their salaries.

TABLE 30
NUMBER OF FULL-TIME TEACHERS—PROJECTED NEEDS

	67–68	68–69	69–70	70–71	71–72	72–73
Barranquilla						
Karl C. Parrish	29	31	32	33	33	35
Bogota						
Nueva Granada	37	38	40	41	42	44
Bucaramanga						
Panamericano	15	17	18	23	23	23
Cali						
Bolivar	35	37	39	41	43	45
Cartagena						
Jorge Washington	13	15	16	17	18	18
Medellin						
Columbus	25	26	26	27	27	28
Port-au-Prince						
Union School	15	15	17	18	18	20

NEEDS FOR SPECIAL PERSONNEL

In order to fulfill the needs of all of the students the instructional staffs must be augmented by specially trained personnel that work in the areas of curriculum, guidance, art and others.

Some of the schools, anticipating these needs, have attempted to project them as shown in Table 31. Only three of the schools seem to have considered the problem realistically in terms of real student needs.

TABLE 31
Stated Needs for Special Personnel in Next 5 Years

School	Curriculum Coordinator	Guidance Counselor	Librarians	Physical Education	Third Language	Other
Barranquilla						
Karl C. Parrish	1	1	2	1	1	1
Bogota						
Nueva Granada			NO DATA			
Bucaramanga						
Colegio Panamericano	1	1	2	1	1	2
Cali						
Colegio Bolivar	1					
Cartagena						
Colegio Jorge Washington	0	0	0	0	0	0
Medellin						
The Columbus School	0	1	2	1	1	
Port-au-Prince						
Union School				1		1

SCHOOL FINANCES

The cost of operating a school and the amount of money available is dependent upon enrollment. All of the schools anticipate continuing increases in enrollment, at least until 1970-71. The schools that visualize their enrollment as stabilizing—Bucaramanga, Barranquilla, and Cartagena—base their final estimates upon capacity. The enrollment given in Table 32 is their planned maximum. The other three schools apparently plan to continue to expand their plants to meet the enrollment needs.

TABLE 32 PROJECTED ENROLLMENT

Schools	67–68	68–69	69–70	70–71	71–72	72–73
Barranquilla Karl C. Parrish	625	675	725	775	800	800
Bogota Nueva Granada	1100	1150	1210	1270	1335	1400
Bucaramanga Panamericano	210	275	325	450	450	450
Cali Bolivar	700	749	785	820	860	900
Cartagena Jorge Washington	275	300	325	350	400	400
Medellin Columbus	540	605	640	685	720	740
Port-au-Prince Union	230	246	270	284	298	313

In the past the schools have built according to their needs. Does the fact that three of the schools see a limit to their expansion mean that they will not build added plant, that they do not accept the challenge of continued growth, or that they wish to maintain a certain U.S.-Colombian student ratio?

Growth in Haiti is impossible to predict with any degree of certainity. Conditions can change rapidly. For this reason a modest growth rate of 5% per year is projected for conservative planning purposes.

The quality of education in the United States is improving annually. At least, the amount of money spent on education is increasing at an average rate of 6.44% per year. Table 33 shows the increase in expenditure per pupil per year. Each year's increase is over the previous period; if 1947-48 were used as a base year the 1965-66 amount would be an increase of 216%.

TABLE 33
EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL IN UNITED STATES

Interval	47–48 to 49–59	49–50 to 51–52	51–52 to 53–54	53–54 to 55–56	55–56 to 57–58	57–58 to 59–60	59–60 to 61–62	61–62 to 63–64	63–64 to 65–66
% of Annual Increase Over Previous Period	8.35%	8.35%	4.3%	5.45%	8.0%	4.95%	5.85%	5.0%	7.7%
AVERAGE ANNUAL INCREASE OVER ENTIRE PERIOD = 6.44%									

Each of the schools has a different bookkeeping system and different budget categories; however, the per pupil cost as shown in Table 34 are based upon total expenses less transportation, capital investment and debt service.

TABLE 34 ANNUAL COST PER PUPIL

School	Barranquilla	Bogota	Bucaramanga	Cali	Cartagena	Medellin	Haiti
Cost	$309	$479	$207	$287	$273	$282	$460

If the United States national average increase is applied to the cost per pupil shown in the above Table the cost will expand as shown in Table 9. The costs are carried forward for five years.

TABLE 35
COST PER PUPIL PROJECTED OVER 5-YEAR PERIOD ANNUAL INCREASE OF 6.44%

School	67–68	68–69	69–70	70–71	71–72	72–73
Barranquilla Karl C. Parrish	309	328	350	373	397	422
Bogota Nueva Granada	479	510	543	578	615	654
Bucaramanga Panamericano	207	220	234	249	265	282
Cali Bolivar	287	305	325	346	368	392
Cartagena Jorge Washington	273	291	309	329	350	373
Medellin Columbus	282	300	319	340	362	385
Port-au-Prince Union	460	490	521	555	590	628

The above cost projection indicates the cost per pupil if the present status relative to United States growth is maintined. It does not include any cost increase based upon an attempt to raise the schools up to the United States average expenditure per pupil.

Projection of Each Schools Total Cost

In Table 36 the enrollment figures from Table 32 have been multiplied by the cost-per-pupil figures in Table 34 to arrive at total cost figures for the years until 72-73. As in Table 34 these figures do not represent an attempt to improve the schools quality position relative to the United States but only to maintain its present relationships.

TABLE 36 PROJECTION OF TOTAL COST

School Year	67–68	68–69	69–70	70–71	71–72	72–73
			(In Thousands of US $)			
Barranquilla						
Karl C. Parrish	193	222	254	289	317	338
Bogota						
Nueva Granada	527	586	657	734	821	916
Bucaramanga						
Panamericano	43	61	76	112	119	127
Cali						
Bolivar	200	229	255	284	317	353
Cartagena						
Jorge Washington	75	87	100	115	140	149
Medellin						
Columbus	151	182	204	233	261	285
Port-au-Prince						
Union	105	120	141	158	176	197

Tuition Rates

Each of the binational schools was originated and continues in operation because of a special interest in a United States type education on the part of the clientele. In most cases the original investment in plant was made by interested American industries, by groups of parents, or in a few cases by U.S. government grant. In all cases, over the years the continued operation of the schools has been based upon tuition payments. Tuition rates for 1966-67 are shown by grade level in Table 37. The averages are indicated only as a help in making comparisions.

TABLE 37 TUITION RATES

	Average	Barranquilla	Bogota	Bucaramanga	Cali	Cartagena	Medellin	Port-au-Prince
N	141.00	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		107	—	111	203	100	183	—
K	140.00	—	133	—	—	—	—	225
1	197.00							
		151						
2	197.00							
		—	—	—	244	—	240	—
3	200.00	—	185	—	—	194	—	—
		170	—	—	—	—		—
4	200.00	—	—	166	—	—	—	315
5	204.00							
6	206.00	—	—	—	271	—	—	—
		177						
7	218.00							
8	233	185	230	—	—	—	—	—
		—	—	—	—	277	254	—
9	311.00	281	—	—	—	—	—	—
10	323.00	295	246	—	—	—	—	450
11	350.00	310	308	—	—	—	308	—
12	354.00	332	—	—	—	—	—	—

Tuitions of Independent Day Schools in the United States

Compared with the Binational Schools

It is often said that the binational schools can best be compared with the private schools in the United States. This undoubtedly is true especially in regard to the qualifications of the student body.

Comparing other factors can reveal contrasting conditions as is shown in Table 38 which indicates the median tuition rates charged according to grade by independent (private) coeducational day schools in several geographical regions in the United States. The tuitions charged by the schools in the States are in every case much higher than those of the schools in Colombia.

TABLE 38 TUITIONS COMPARED

Median 1967-68 Tuitions in Independent Coeducational Day Schools by Grades

Area in U. S.	Grade 1	Grade 3	Grade 6	Grade 9	Grade 12	% Increase Since 1966-67	% Increase Since 1962-3
New England	650	800	1000	1138	1200	11.6	24.7
Middle Atlantic	728	875	1000	1250	1300	13	27.9
S. E. & South	594	650	720	786	835	14.8	31.7
Midwest	725	783	925	1125	1200	10.2	24.1
S. W. & N. W.	743	755	900	1075	1100	11.6	23.1
West	685	788	850	1100	1100	13.4	25.3
Colombia							
Barranquilla	151	170	177	281	332		
Bogota	185	185	185	230	308		
Bucaramanga	166	166	166				
Cali	244	244	271	372	372		
Cartagena	194	194	194	277			
Medellin	240	240	240	254	308		
Port-au-Prince, Haiti	315	315	315	450	450		

It is possible that if a survey were made to ascertain the income level of their clientele the schools would discover that they could be charging much higher tuitions. Such a survey may not only be justifiable but necessary before large financial grants are given by the United States government. A question to be answered is: How large a portion of the cost should be borne by a school's clientele?

Sources of Funds

Table 39 indicates the sources of the funds utilized by the schools.

An examination of the following table indicates that the largest source of funds consists of the families served by the schools whose payments are considered to be either tuition and fees or donations. The term donation may in some cases be considered a euphemism for the word tuition. These two items together account for a minimum of 73% and a maximum of 87% of the total funds for each school. The second largest source of money is the U.S. government which contributed from 7% to 21% of the individual school's income for the year under consideration. The grants from the U.S. government are categorical and must be used as designated which most often is for capital expenditures.

Estimated Minimum Needs

In order to maintain the present status relative to the increasing annual costs an annually expanding sum of money must be sought from the sources. Table 40 indicates what these amounts may be. This table does not show any increase in the relative proportion of the cost assumed by tuition money.

The quality of education is directly related to the amount of money that is available for its costs. To improve the binational schools two steps must be taken: (1) tuitions must be increased, and (2) other sources of funds must be found.

TABLE 39 SOURCES OF FUNDS
(US Dollars)

Schools Items	Barranquilla	Bogota	Bucaramanga	Cali	Cartagena	Medellin	Port-au-Prince
Tuition & Fees	83.7% 160,000	40% 240100	36% 36900	75% 182800	64% 53000	87% 135,700	78% 72747.00
US Gov't Grants	15% 3000	7% 44400	21% 21000	7% 18000	28% 23,000	10% 16000	20% 19000.00
PTA	.8% 1500					6%	
Donations	1% 2000	40% 240400	39% 40000			6% 900	
Bus		5% 30700	4% 4000	13% 32400	8% 7000	2% 2900	
Summer School				1% 2500			
Miscellaneous		7% 44500		3% 7200			2% 1700.00
TOTAL	193,500	600100	101900	242900	83000	155500	93447.00

TABLE 40
ESTIMATED MINIMUM NEEDS TO MAIN PRESENT STATUS RELATIVE TO INCREASING ANNUAL COSTS

Location and School Name	Total Operational Costs —100%—		Amounts needed from other sources (In 1000's of U.S. dollars)—Percent needed x total cost projected for each year—					
	% From Tuition & Fees	From Other Sources %	67–68	68–69	69–70	70–71	71–72	72–73
Barranquilla Karl C. Parrish	84	16	31	36	41	46	51	54
Bogota Nueva Granada	80	20	105	117	131	147	164	183
Bucaramanga Panamericana	75	25	21	29	36	54	57	61
Cali Bolivar	75	25	50	57	64	71	79	88
Cartagena Jorge Washington	73	27	17	22	25	31	38	40
Medellin Columbus	87	13	20	24	27	30	34	37
Port-au-Prince Union	78	22	23	26	31	35	39	43

Summary

The ages of the schools range from less than five years to nearly fifty with the average being approximately twenty-five. Five of the schools were founded by North Americans for the purpose of giving their children a United States-type education, and two of the schools—Bucaramanga and Port-au-Prince—were organized by Nationals who having been impressed by American education wanted it for their children. In all of the schools the ownership rests in the hands of the parents of the students.

The schools are managed by school boards that are, in all but one case, elected by the parents. The boards meet periodically—usually once a month—to determine school policies. The active management of the schools is in the hands of superintendents employed by the boards.

Throughout most of the years of the schools' existence there have been increases in enrollment with consequent expansions in plants and staffs. The increased material requirements coupled with the constantly advancing costs of a modern education create problems of financing that apparently are beyond solution by the schools' local resources. Tuition rates are controlled by law and the charging of special fees and "donations" has probably reached the point of diminishing returns.

Improving and up-grading the professional personnel is a constant challenge to the schools. Local teachers require additional education to meet SACS standards and import-teachers leave after a term or two to continue their careers in the States. To meet this challenge various expendients have been tried with the most efficient probably being the presentation of university accredited inservice training which permits teachers to work on advanced degrees while "on-the-job."

The recruiting and employment of professional staff—especially American-trained teachers—have presented difficult and expensive problems to the schools. As salary schedules are an important aspect of employment, they have been presented in full. Most American schools in Latin America pay salaries on a double standard; that is, a higher salary is paid to imported American teachers than is paid to locally hired and National teachers for the same job. The thinking behind such arrangements is that it is unreasonable to expect American teachers to leave the States for a job that would pay much less than he could earn in the United States. On the other hand, it also seems unrealistic to pay locally employed teachers a salary that is markedly higher than that being paid by the local schools. The result is a dichotomy that has moral implications that can strain personnel relations and create staff divisions on national lines.

In order to raise all salaries to the SACS minimum, more generous funding is necessary.

Generally the teacher/student ration in the schools is good, but the curricula are restricted to college preparation. Subject offerings are limited even in such important areas as language instruction in Spanish and English, and there is practically no terminal training.

The nationality of most of the teachers on the staffs of the binational schools is either American or host-country; however, there often are a few teachers of third-country nationality. Generally the National and third-country teachers are more proficient in English than the American teachers are in Spanish. Faculty committees are dominated by the Americans except in innocuous positions like social committees.

As is to be expected, most of the graduating seniors are reported to intend to continue their formal education; however, there is no available information concerning the performance of former graduates.

Except for one school, the libraries are excellent and can be expected to get even better. The schools are accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools and/or are recognized by Colombian education authorities.

At any level above kindergarten or first grade, all but one of the schools maintain knowledge of English as an entrance requirement. Four of the schools require that a certain test score be achieved in order to qualify for entrance, and four also have written entrance policies.

Generally the buildings and grounds are in good condition. Maintenance seems to be adequate and custodial service sufficient to keep the plants clean and pleasing. One school which was deficient in plant facilities will very shortly move into entirely new buildings. The school which has the smallest amount of floor space per child is completing plans for a new plant which will correct its deficiencies. The other schools are attractive and functional in design. At least one might be considered a model school.

APPENDIX

TIME-TABLE FOR BACHILLERATO COURSE

(Periods Per Week)

	Secondary School Grade					
Compulsory Minimum Content	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Religion	3	3	3	2	2	1
Arithmetic	5	5				
Book-keeping			2			
Spanish and Composition	4	5				
Arthography	2	3				
Literary Appreciation-Composition			3			
Spanish Language and Authors					3	
Colombian and Hispano-American Literature						2
General Literature				3		
Latin					3	3
English	2	3	4	4		
French				3	3	4
History of Colombia and America	4					3
General History			3	3		
Geography of Colombia and America	4					2
General Geography		3	3			
General Science		2				
Botany and Zoology			3			
Anatomy, physiology, hygiene				3		
Physics					3	4
Chemistry					4	3
Geometry and Trigonometry					3	
Philosophy				3	4	3
Physical education	2	2	2	1	1	1
Civics	1	1	1			
History of Bolivar's Ideas						1
TOTAL	27	27	24	22	26	27
Additional Classwork						
a. For free time for more intensive study	11	11	11	10	10	10
Algebra			3	3		
Geometry				4		
b. For other courses—at discretion of schools	(11)	(11)	(14)	(17)	(10)	(10)
TOTAL—Compulsory and Optional	38	38	38	39	36	37

SOURCE: **World Survey of Education, III. Secondary Education** (New York: International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, 1961), p. 377.